The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 26, 1901.

The Week.

President Roosevelt, promptly anticipating the resignation of the members of the McKinley Cabinet, has induced them to remain in office throughout his term. This is Mr. Roosevelt's way of confirming the promise he made at Buffalo that he would carry out the policy of his predecessor. In no other way could he have emphasized it so fully and satisfactorily. In no other way could he so happily have met the public desires, or have conveyed to the world the assurance that the assassin's bullet had produced no change in public aims and administration. It cannot be assumed that President Roosevelt has no initiative of his own, since his whole career has bristled with it. Indeed, the apprehension which assailed the public mind momentarily, when Mr. McKinley was struck down, was that the Vice-President had too much initiative, and that he would probably hasten to substitute new policies in place of those already in operation. All such fears are wisely dispelled. The business world and the thinking world are alike convinced that, although all hearts are wounded, no wound has befallen the republic.

There is nothing more satisfactory about Secretary Hay's continuance in office under President Roosevelt than the assurance which it gives in regard to the Isthmian Canal. Ever since his assumption of the duties of Secretary of State, Mr. Hay has labored unceasingly for the kind of canal which would reflect the most credit upon the American people, and be most useful to the nations of the world. He has stood throughout for a waterway without forts and without soldiers, open to all nations in time of war as well as in time of peace. Had the Senate but adopted the treaty with England which Mr. Hay submitted to it, the canal question would to-day be well along toward settlement. As it is now, the prospects are of the best for a speedy and rational conclusion of the question, provided that the Senate—the "destroyer of treaties"—throws no new obstacles in the way, and this seems now no longer to be feared. According to the best Washington advices, President Roosevelt and his Secretary of State are as heartily in accord on all questions as two men can be. It follows that the President will support Mr. Hay's plans with all his limitless energy, even though he does not believe in the neutrality of the canal in war time. The *Evening Post's* Washington correspondent is authority for the statement that the new treaty to be submitted to the Senate next winter will contain all the Senate amendments in an inoffensive form.

Mr. John R. Dos Passos publishes in the *Times* his views of anarchism and the proper methods of dealing with it by law. The difficulties of the subject are candidly acknowledged by the writer, and for the most part carefully treated. He rules out, as any lawyer must, the method, most commonly advocated by public meetings and by extempore speakers, of "stamping out"—which, if it means anything, means the employment of anarchy to suppress anarchism. Mr. Dos Passos also deprecates the plan for making any attempt upon the life of a President or Vice-President, or other ruler, whether successful or not, punishable by death. Other crude conceptions of the moment to which the crime of Czolgosz gave birth are "stamped out" by Mr. Dos Passos. So much for the negative side of his argument. On the positive side he suggests, first, a method of dealing with anarchistic societies and demonstrations by international action. The plan proposed is the appointment of an International Commission to discuss the whole subject in conferences with like commissioners appointed by other countries. Details of the process of hunting down the anarchists of all countries are not supplied. They are left to the imagination mostly. Therefore, the only comment that occurs to us at this point is that an international commission would scarcely be able to devise or execute more drastic means for hunting down anarchists than those which Russia adopted and put in force against nihilists. Yet it is remembered that, in spite of everything, they compassed the death of Alexander II. in broad daylight in the streets of St. Petersburg, and blew up a train on which his successor was travelling from Odessa to Moscow. It does not follow from these facts that no steps should be taken to hunt down those who plot against the lives of rulers. The facts do serve to show how difficult is the problem we have to deal with.

Taking up the subject of separate State action, Mr. Dos Passos thinks that the laws of New York against unlawful assemblages are already ample, but that the penalty for assembling to commit an injury to person or property or a breach of the peace should be made a felony, instead of a misdemeanor. We agree to this also; but let us remark, in passing, that nobody who has made up his mind to play the part of an anarchist by taking the life of a ruler will be deterred from attending a forbidden assemblage by the legal difference between felony and misdemeanor. Closely following this suggestion, Mr. Dos Passos says:

> "I would add a section to it, making it a felony punishable as to members two years, and as to officers ten years, in State prison, to belong to or aid or contribute to the support of any society having for its object the overthrow of this or any foreign Government, or the killing or attempted killing of any supreme ruler or officer thereof. Of course, I am now merely throwing out rough suggestions."

This suggestion seems to us much too "rough," for, if it had been in force four years ago, it would have subjected the members of the Cuban society in this country of which Mr. Estrada Palma was the head, to punishment by imprisonment from two to ten years. It would have subjected the Kossuth societies of 1849 to similar punishment. The Fenians and other organizations conspiring to overthrow English rule in Ireland would have been equally under the ban, and, to go further back, our Revolutionary fathers would have sinned against the same law. However, we welcome Mr. Dos Passos's letter as one of the saner communications of the hour, one of those which bring the light of reason to bear upon much reckless writing and speech that can hardly be distinguished from anarchical literature itself.

What looks like a step backward is the decision of the Virginia Constitutional Convention to omit from the new Constitution which it is framing a provision regarding free speech that is found in the old one. The Bill of Rights in that State now contains this section:

> "That the freedom of the press is one of the great bulwarks of liberty, and can never be restrained but by despotic governments. And any citizen may speak, write, and publish his sentiments on all subjects, being responsible for the abuse of that liberty."

A committee reported in favor of striking out the second of these sentences, and an attempt in the Convention to restore the clause was defeated by a vote of 28 to 23. The incident occurred a few days after Mr. McKinley was shot, and the action would naturally be attributed to that crime. Indeed, the chairman of the committee responsible incidentally referred to the assassination of President McKinley, and added: "It does seem to me that we have had a lesson in this country of the evils that will come of allowing a man, or rather a woman, to speak for ever on all subjects, subject to their liability to the law. We should not encourage it." The main reason which he assigned, however, was the fact that the clause in question was "the work of aliens"—meaning that it was added to the original section by the convention, largely

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controlled by "carpet-baggers," which met in 1868, during the reconstruction era—and that their work ought to be undone. Practically nothing is accomplished by such action.

The steel strike has come and gone, has lasted in all several weeks, and has succeeded in closing a great number of mills. Besides this, it has hampered production in many more, and has cut down our exports of steel and steel products by very considerable amounts. Yet the general prosperity of the country has not been materially interfered with, and trade and industry have continued in an exceedingly satisfactory condition. Some industries have been troubled temporarily by scarcity of material, but they have either imported what they needed, raising their prices correspondingly, or have employed substitutes of some kind. The sympathetic strikes called for by Shaffer and his colleagues have not been declared, for men were too busily employed at good wages, and felt too little sympathy with the issue at stake, to enter the industrial lists for mere sentiment. From the large economic point of view the strike is instructive. Not only has it displayed wonderful strength on the part of capital—strength hitherto unknown in such contests—but it has severely tested some maxims that had become "blessed words" with writers on industrial subjects. According to all authorities, the time when a strike may be initiated with good prospect of success is when the industry in question is prosperous, markets are rising, and trade generally is good. Under such circumstances, theorists say, the owners of labor have the whip-hand, and can practically dictate terms. How miserably inadequate such a theory is, when thus simply stated, is plain from the fact that the Steel Corporation has been able to collect large forces of men ready and willing to take the places of the strikers, and would undoubtedly have started the mills in a very short time had the strike not been terminated. The trouble was that the Amalgamated Association did not control labor, but was a small oligarchy unsuccessfully trying to maintain old methods, restrict production, and secure high wages when many competent men were anxiously awaiting an opportunity to compete.

An important feature of the agreement entered into by Shaffer on behalf of the Amalgamated Association has only just been made public. It amounts to a promise not to attempt to extend the Amalgamated Association to non-union mills during the coming year. Shaffer undertakes that the Amalgamated will issue no lodge charters to local unions organized in specified mills before July 1, 1902. His record in the past has not been such as to inspire confidence in his promises. If such confidence could be felt, it would be clear that the new agreement practically confines the Amalgamated to its present limits, and prevents even the possibility of growth, for a twelvemonth. Thus the Trust seeks to retain its hold on the ground won by it in the recent fight. After next July, the work of reorganizing the lost mills may recommence. But any progress in that direction will be hindered by the further clause in the strike settlement whereby the annual wage conference has been sacrificed. With that gone, the Amalgamated has little to live for. What is most important of all, however, is the fact that its members have in large numbers become thoroughly alienated from the organization. Shaffer or no Shaffer, this lack of interest will prevent growth for years to come.

The game which the machine Democrats of Philadelphia have been playing as the subservient tools of the corrupt Republican machine has strained the patience of the decent Democrats of that city to the breaking-point, and on Friday the break came. The Democratic County Convention met and, without regard to the advice of ex-Gov. Pattison, Chairman of the City Committee, and of Col. Guffey, the Democratic National Committeeman for Pennsylvania, nominated a "straight" Democratic ticket, not even endorsing District Attorney Rothermel, who has been renominated by the reform forces. As soon as the Convention, which was made up almost solely of the members of the Democratic ring known to coöperate with the Ashbridge plunderers, had done its work, Chairman Pattison tendered his resignation, and, with Col. Guffey, announced that a new Democratic City Committee would be organized which would coöperate with the union reform forces. Chairman Pattison's resignation was to be expected under the circumstances, for he could not retain the confidence of decent men and remain at the head of the Democratic machine as at present constituted. The determination to form a new committee and rally honest Democrats to the support of the union reform movement furnishes more ground for hope than any previous effort of ex-Gov. Pattison in this emergency.

The selection of Seth Low as their candidate for Mayor by the conferees who represented the eighteen anti-Tammany organizations, last week, was finally reached through an almost unanimous vote of the conferees, by a process of elimination. It was plainly desirable that the anti-Tammany candidate should be a man who, in either public or private life, had opposed Tammany effectively in recent times; but different objections appeared to render unavailable the Comptroller, the District Attorney, the Justice of Special Sessions who has coöperated with the prosecuting officer, and the Chairman of the Committee of Fifteen. In a city where a large majority of the voters are Democrats, and where success for the anti-Tammany candidate depends upon his receiving considerable Democratic support, it was plainly desirable that this candidate should be a man of independent mind, whose affiliations had been with the Democratic party. Many Democrats were suggested, but different objections were fatal to all of them—such as too great age, failure to command the confidence of the conservative elements, incapacity to make an effective campaign, the ignorance of the general public regarding estimable but little-known citizens, and the charge of being professional politicians. Meanwhile there stood quite apart one man whose fitness to be the anti-Tammany candidate now could not be disputed, because he had been such a candidate before and had acquitted himself well; a man who had been for four years Mayor of the second largest borough; a man who was not advocated by any element among the conferees with the ardor which characterized the support of many others, but against whom hardly one of them felt implacable opposition. Under these circumstances it has for weeks been almost as certain that Mr. Low would be the final choice as that the day set for the selection would come.

Since Mr. Philbin cannot be induced to accept a nomination as District Attorney, the Citizens' Union is eminently justified in putting forward the name of Justice Jerome for that position upon the anti-Tammany ticket. Mr. Jerome has shown by his prosecution of the police matters which have come before him that he possesses exactly the qualities needed to make a successful District Attorney. He is able, aggressive, and full of a determination to promote the ends of justice which cannot be shaken by any number of checks or defeats. There are probably not more than three or four, if so many, citizens of New York, outside of Tammany Hall, who know the condition of the police force as thoroughly as does Mr. Jerome, or are better acquainted with the causes of the city's moral degradation. As a Justice, he has conscientiously striven to treat each case which has come before him with a view to finding a method of dealing with the prisoner, consistent with the ends of justice, which should offer the best chance of helping the prisoner himself. So irreproachable has been his own career, so careful has he been in keeping within the limits of his judicial authority, that Tammany has been unable to make a point against him or to check his "pernicious activity" in any way. The fact that so courageous a judge was at hand with power to follow up police corrup-

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tion has been the most encouraging feature of the municipal situation during the last few months. Mr. Jerome's familiarity with the District Attorney's office, in which he was an Assistant under Col. Fellows, is but another reason why his valuable public services should be recognized by the anti-Tammany conferees.

New York has lost a valuable citizen by the death of Simon Sterne, and one whom it could ill afford to spare at the beginning of another effort to free it from its thraldom to Tammany Hall. Against this organization, its methods and aims, Mr. Sterne did some extremely effective work in many previous campaigns, from the Tweed period down, both by his writings and his utterances. But he did not confine these efforts to preëlection periods. In the City Club, the Reform Club, and other organizations his voice was always for independence in politics, non-partisanship in municipal affairs, and good government. Towards these ends he gave many valuable hours to attendance at routine committee meetings, with a generosity which was an inspiration to younger men, and a splendid example of civic devotion to men of his own age and rank. As a lawyer, his position among the leaders of the New York and, indeed, of the entire American bar was unquestioned. There are few left whose knowledge of railroad and Constitutional law is as profound as was his. Never an office-seeker, he was ever ready to serve the public when called upon, and his willingness to do so led to his services being called for by the Board of Trade, the Chamber of Commerce, the Interstate Commerce Commission, and other bodies. Both Gov. Tilden and Gov. Morton recognized the public value of his character and abilities.

Vessels arriving at Tacoma from the sealing grounds in Bering Sea report that an unusually small catch is being made for this season. No vessel concerning which information has been received had taken more than eighty seals down to August 21, while there were many whose voyage had been wholly fruitless. This experience indicates that the gloomy predictions concerning the future of the sealing industry are gradually being realized, for this year's catch is so small that even the officers of the vessels engaged admit that the extermination of the seal is in sight. None of the reasons assigned for small catches in previous years can be admitted in this instance, for the conditions under which the vessels have been operating are unusually favorable. Each year's experience points more and more directly to the conclusion that some measures looking to the protection of the female seals and the old males must be adopted. Pelagic sealing must be prohibited; but to do this the international deadlock on the subject must somehow be broken. The United States could better afford to cede the fishing rights for which it has contended than to have the process of extermination completed.

The annual report of the so-called "Rope Trust," officially known as the Standard Rope and Twine Company, emphasizes the moral which we drew last week from the case of the English cotton combination. The Standard Company is the successor of the more or less famous National Cordage, which played a somewhat conspicuous rôle in the first craze over "Trust" incorporation, ten years ago. That company paid dividends at the rate of 7 per cent. on a share capital of $20,000,000, and the price of its shares rose to extraordinary figures. It went into bankruptcy in 1893, three months after distributing $250,000 dividends, which, as it soon appeared, were paid out of working capital. Its successor company scaled down the total capital some 25 per cent., and has made no payments on the half of it placed as stock. Yet its report for the twelve months ending June 30 shows that even these much-reduced annual charges were not earned by the year's operations, the shortage in profit-and-loss account approaching half a million dollars. A fortnight ago, another industrial combination created in the movement of 1899 had to make a similar confession. In its first fourteen months of corporate existence, the Republic Iron and Steel Company, organized with a capital of $47,000,000, paid 7 per cent. on its preferred stock, and reported a surplus of $2,200,000. In the next twelve months, lately completed, it had to borrow $1,100,000 from its surplus to meet this cumulative dividend.

The report of the financial distress of the Colombian Government throws grave doubt upon the ability of its Administration to cope successfully with the revolution. Notwithstanding the fact that seventy or eighty per cent. of the population are said to sympathize with the new movement, it might still be possible for the authorities to retain power could they keep the army in hand, for it is strong enough to deal an effective blow to the revolution. In order to retain control of the troops, the Government must, however, pay them liberally and promptly—a policy not hitherto pursued, since about $45,000 is now due for back pay to a single division. Even this situation would not necessarily be fatal if the tax-paying power of the country had not been severely strained. The lowness of the level reached by Colombian finance is made plain by the reported decline of the paper peso to less than three cents, and the continued appreciation of gold. No such low quotation could have been reached unless hope of relief through taxation were almost dead. The use of forced loans indicates that the last resources of a bankrupt Government are being employed.

Among the French Socialists the Czar's visit has aroused various emotions. That certain leaders of the proletariat should seek to exploit the overt friendliness of a tyrannical empire and a bourgeois republic, and should find in the pomp of the fêtes an argument for the social revolution, was inevitable. Generally the Socialist town councils which have been most eager to go on record against the imperial visit have been held well in check by the Socialist allies of the Ministry; and, opportunely enough, M. Jaurès's new doctrine of "Parliamentary Socialism" was announced only a fortnight or so before the Czar's arrival at Dunkirk. The incident at Rheims on Friday night shows that the Government's Socialist friends may be quite as much of an embarrassment as its enemies. The Socialist Mayor of Rheims "monsieured" his Majesty throughout a banquet, plied him with the best Rheims champagne, clinked glasses with him, and generally made him feel at home among the other *citoyens*. Thus the perfect equality of a Socialist Mayor and a great monarch was triumphantly established. To the Czar the experience must have afforded a novel entertainment. The committee whose duty it is to keep the republic on its good behavior must have taken a less kindly view of these unscheduled convivialities.

An extreme example of protectionism is found in a peculiar clause of the new Australian Tariff Bill, which provides that all vessels coming from abroad must pay duty on the provisions consumed by the passengers and crews while in port. It makes no difference if the supplies have been brought from home by the vessel and are merely used during its stay in harbor. Whatever the source of the stores, duty must be paid on them. Inasmuch as many vessels call at several Australian ports, requiring more than a week to make the round, the imposition of the tariff on their supplies will materially increase their running expenses. Such a provision is the precise opposite of the English practice, which permits vessels to carry with them abundant supplies, duty free, when making the round of the different ports. The imposition of the tax is likely to amount to discrimination against English vessels and in favor of German and French ships, of which, according to the London *Economist*, the tax cannot be collected. The impost represents a most excessive application of protection to home industries, since it amounts to practical compulsion to buy ships' stores in the local Australian market, instead of starting with a full supply for the journey.

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THE MOURNING.

The impressiveness of the latest proof that one touch of nature makes the whole world kin, was in some ways unexampled. The popular and official mourning abroad for President McKinley was on such a scale as to imply a solidarity of nations like that dreamed of by the revolutionists of 1848. It was, however, displayed by an England momentarily drawn to us by Imperialistic filibustering; and by France in the midst of a reception of the Tsar designed to convince her hereditary foes on either side that the shadowy "alliance" with Russia is a powder-and-shot reality. In the formal give-and-take of potentates we are simply getting our share; and as we multiply our political points of contact with foreign Powers, exchanges of felicitations and condolences are liable at any time to be put to the test of situations in which the "natural man" habitually asserts himself.

Similar reflections suggest themselves on analyzing the domestic expression of sorrow and respect for the murdered Chief Magistrate. It might be interpreted as a solemn protest against the lawlessness which is the badge of the assassin and his kind. We have heard, however, ministers of the gospel, while certifying to Mr. McKinley's Christian character, regret that Czolgosz was not torn to pieces on the spot; and it has been painfully evident that the mob spirit has everywhere been aroused in resentment at the crime of September 6. Thousands, it is true, have entertained this spirit in thought, or breathed it in words, to one who has joined in giving it practical effect; but, in far too many instances, petty persecution or brutal violence, even to tarring and feathering and expulsion, has been visited on the unfeeling creatures who exulted in the President's death. We have, in fact, witnessed throughout the country a measurable reflection of the treatment accorded to Tories during the Revolution, over which the decent apologist of the Fathers seeks to draw a veil. A certain portion of the press has barely refrained from exciting violence, as well as odium, against those who, in times past, have, in other journals, in public addresses, or through any of the recognized avenues of free speech, judged President McKinley unfavorably; and this is an ominous sign of the times. There was a period when slavery, and again the Union, were the sacred objects to be protected by such terrorizing, but that was when both were in peril. Now, death, like a despot, has closed and locked the doors and set seals on a finished public character, and rage is vented on those who furnished that current criticism on which the historian depends for a just understanding of the man and his epoch.

In all these truly anarchistic manifestations, we do not say that the hideous Southern lynchings find their explanation; but can any thoughtful mind fail to discern in them a reason for the growing indifference to these lynchings which is more dangerous than they? It was characteristic of the cruelties of slavery that the master's punishment bore no necessary proportion to the offence. How could it when passion might be gratified without fear of public opinion or of legal consequences? The moment unpopular opinion and expression are permitted to be dealt with otherwise than according to law, the penalty is again certain to be unrelated in severity to the offence. Outrage upon national feeling may by any mob be placed among capital crimes, and it makes no difference whether that feeling is idolatry for institutions, or sorrow and resentment for the assassin's disturbance of the body politic. The abolitionists experienced this to the full, pure as were their aims, and their instrumentalities only moral. When Frederick Douglass, at Syracuse, in 1850, declared Washington, Jefferson, and Patrick Henry (slaveholders all) 'strangers to any just idea of Liberty," a journal of the day marvelled that "no hand was raised to fell the speaker to the earth"; and a New York contemporary, anticipating Douglass's presence at an anti-slavery meeting in this city, warned him that if he "shall reproclaim his Syracuse treason here, and any man shall arrest him in his diabolical career, and not injure him, thousands will exclaim, in language of patriotic love for the Constitution and the rights of the South, *'Did he not strike the villain dead?'* "

We recently commented on some statistics collected by the Chicago *Tribune* regarding illegal executions throughout the Union. Massachusetts was among the four States free from the blot of lynchings during the past sixteen years. How accidental this was, appears from what happened on Cape Cod on the day of the funeral ceremonies at Washington for the dead President. The coachman of ex-Secretary Olney was overheard to say that the shooting was a good thing, and that President McKinley should have been shot long ago. Some one made affidavit to this effect. There was an indignation movement among the citizens; Mr. Olney was informed of the matter, and it was reported that the man had been discharged. As there was no affidavit to this, however, "one hundred citizens, representing about one-third of the voting population" of the village, "determined to give Conway [the coachman] a coat of tar and feathers" on Wednesday night. Not finding him at large, they proceeded to Mr. Olney's house to ascertain his whereabouts, but Mr. Olney refused to take any notice of them, even by so much as showing himself when they called him out. Now they might, by mob law, have considered this incivility worthy of the treatment intended for Conway, and perhaps in their hearts they did. Still, wishing to see what persuasion would do, "the crowd sang 'Nearer, My God, to Thee' and 'America,' and made repeated but fruitless efforts to bring a response from Mr. Olney." They then repaired to the town hall and resolved that Mr. Olney's course was "an insult to American citizenship," and finally hung an effigy to a telegraph-pole.

We do not think this needs much comment even from some pulpits we could name. Massachusetts escaped once more the lynching black-list; but if Mr. Olney was really secreting his servant, or refused to betray him to an evil-disposed body of citizens who had no guarantee to give that they would stop short with tarring and feathering the man, we can only say he got off more lightly than he would have done south of Mason and Dixon's line, where mobs are not content with hymn-singing and effigies. Some blushing will perhaps begin now that such scenes are possible in a Massachusetts town. The coachman—granting that he was not traduced or drunk—was akin to Czolgosz to the extent of his heartless remark. But how much removed from either were "the hundred citizens, representing about one-third of the voting population" of the town, who had a chance to resolve against him as well as against Mr. Olney and still remain law-abiding? As it is, they have brought both law and religion into contempt.

RESPONSIBILITY FOR YELLOW JOURNALISM.

The theory, which has been seriously advanced, that Czolgosz was led to assassinate President McKinley by reading a certain daily newspaper, is without a particle of evidence, and is an affront to common sense. One might with as much reason have argued that Guiteau was impelled to kill President Garfield in 1881 by reading the bitter diatribes in Republican newspapers during that period of heated factional controversy in the Republican party which preceded the assassination. Hardly less justifiable have been the more extreme complaints regarding the treatment of the late President by yellow journals, going, as they often have virtually gone, to the length of declaring that public men must be relieved from criticism by the writer or the cartoonist.

Freedom of legitimate discussion must be maintained. If any editor or any public man feels persuaded that a President is working harm to the republic, he must have the right to say so plainly and emphatically. A year and a half ago, Mr. Hoar, the veteran Republican Senator from Massachusetts, was profoundly convinced that the policy pur-

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sued by the Administration was one so utterly bad that "perseverance in it will be the abandonment of the principles upon which our Government is founded, that it will change our republic into an empire"; and he so declared, in the most impressive manner, in a speech delivered before the Senate on the 17th of April, 1900. The right of any public man—and of any newspaper editor—to say such severe things as this about any President must be preserved, and it will be a sad day for the republic when there are no Senators ready to speak the truth as they see it. So, too, we must render it possible always for a Nast to expose a Tweed, or a Keppler a Blaine, in a cartoon which puts a whole argument in a single picture.

The real offence of yellow journalism is not so much that it holds a public man up to undeserved ridicule, or visits upon him censure which he does not deserve, as that its pervading spirit is one of vulgarity, indecency, and reckless sensationalism; that it steadily violates the canons alike of good taste and sound morals; that it cultivates false standards of life, and demoralizes its readers; that it recklessly uses language which may incite the crack-brained to lawlessness; that its net influence makes the world worse. A force working to such ends surely ought to be restrained, and public opinion ought to be brought to bear against it in the most effective possible ways. There has been much discussion as to the responsibility for this sort of journalism, but the real blame surely rests upon the community which sustains it. Fortunately, too, this responsibility can be narrowed down. Those most to blame for the existence of any evil are the people who could do most to suppress it, by giving the force of their example, as well as their words, against it. One can, and should, "have nothing to do with him" in the case of any private citizen who has forfeited public respect by gross misconduct; refuse to go to his house, to recognize him on the street, to endorse his course in any way. Precisely the same thing can and should be done in the case of a newspaper.

It is a disagreeable truth, but one which ought to be told, that yellow journalism, in its worst New York exemplar, stood upon a higher plane of respectability on the day Mr. McKinley was shot than ever before, because it had just secured the endorsement of a number of the most prominent men in the community; because an eminent bishop of the church had become a contributor to its columns; because other well-known clergymen, lawyers, and business men had followed this leadership; because it was thus enabled, with apparent truth, to boast not only that it was a most reputable publication, but that it was of all newspapers in New York the one which offered the best medium for public teachers to employ. The dead walls of this city two weeks ago were placarded with great posters displaying this certificate of good character. But the *Journal* was just the same newspaper when it was given this certificate that it had always been; it was unchanged when it published communications on labor and capital by these highly respectable and influential men. They knew its character well when they agreed to furnish such articles. They ought to have known, too, that it wanted simply the endorsement of their names in order to convince doubters that it was a fit paper for the home. They ought also to have known that the readers would turn from their articles to pages of scandal, vulgarity, indecency, and sensationalism. They sinned against the light.

"Why will people buy such a newspaper?" has been the most common question. Why should they not buy it, when our best men write for it? Why should we expect people not to patronize a paper which can advertise that it is vouched for by leaders in the church, in law, in finance? With what force can we condemn a newspaper for its vulgarity, indecency, and general demoralization, with what force can we criticise the ignorant and the untrained for reading such a paper, when our very teachers of morality pronounce it a fit instructor for them? These are the questions we must now ask.

What this community needs is not diatribes against the conductors of yellow journals, or against the buyers of them. It needs the general adoption by our business men, our lawyers, our clergymen, our men of light and leading, of the only effective method for discouraging such journals, as exemplified, more than three years ago, by an ex-President. On the 27th of February, 1898, W. R. Hearst telegraphed to Grover Cleveland that Levi P. Morton, Gen. Miles, Rear-Admiral Selfridge, William C. Whitney, O. H. P. Belmont, George Gould, C. M. Depew, Gen. O. O. Howard, the Governors of fifteen States, the Mayors of fifty-two cities, and a large number of other citizens in public and private life, had accepted membership on his committee to erect a national monument by popular subscription to the men who went down with the *Maine*, and asked permission to add the ex-President's name to the list of national committeemen. This reply was sent as soon as the wires could carry it:

"PRINCETON, N. J., February 28, 1898.
"To W. R. Hearst, New York *Journal*, New York:
"I decline to allow my sorrow for those who died on the *Maine* to be perverted to an advertising scheme for the New York *Journal*. GROVER CLEVELAND."

AN IMPORTANT OFFICE.

The appointment of William B. Ridgely of Illinois to the office of Comptroller of the Currency is, of course, no surprise. For some time prior to the assassination of President McKinley it had been an open secret that Illinois was to be permitted to retain its "mortgage" on the office, and that the son-in-law of Senator Cullom would be the next Comptroller. An unfortunate disposition to keep the appointment in politics, instead of making it a recognition of broad practical skill or theoretical knowledge, was thus manifested, and the mere recognition of what was already decided cannot properly, therefore, be imputed to President Roosevelt for unrighteousness. While, however, Mr. Ridgely owes his office to political influence, it should be recognized that he has a better preparation for duty than many of his predecessors. He has had some practical experience in banking, and is therefore in a certain way better qualified than men who had never seen the inside of a bank save as customers, and had never read a line on the theoretical aspects of the subject.

The coming of a new appointee to such an office as that of Comptroller suggests some sober reflections upon the responsibilities attaching thereto. A community which can treat the Comptrollership as political spoils is likely to forget the nature of the duties of the office, and to overlook the fact that it should be much more than a Government sinecure, or even a position to be filled by some man of little ability and merely faithful to the routine duties of each day's work. The office of Comptroller under the present organization of the national banking system is one of commanding importance, and there is no single man in the country who can do more than an informed and tactful Comptroller to keep the country off the rocks of speculative and credit inflation by insisting upon a sound basis for bank loans, and the maintenance of an adequate reserve. There is no man who, with the immense volume of information at his command, is in better position to sound the call for retreat when the financial institutions of the country have incautiously advanced too far upon dangerous ground, and to warn the ignorant public of coming danger. Besides this general function as an advance guard to the soundness of the country's prosperity, the daily duties of the office in closing unsound, and winding up the affairs of failed, banks, are such as require immense firmness and courage, as well as a high degree of insight into banking organization. Finally, a most important service to the study of banking is performed in the publication of the Comptroller's annual report.

Of these three functions the first has seldom of late years been exercised. It is true that various Comptrollers have had much to say of "currency reform," but their predictions as to financial conditions have usually come after instead

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of before the fact, and their knowledge of banking has been too superficial, limited, or hastily acquired to make their general observations worth notice. Professor von Holst says that "an observance of the ten commandments never made a statesman." In like manner, ordinary common sense, the control of votes in primaries, even shaving notes in a country town, or groping in the vaults of a city bank, never endowed any one with financial perspicacity and grasp of general conditions.

The routine work of the office has often been performed with efficiency and dispatch. Men who knew nothing of those duties upon entering the office have familiarized themselves with what they had to do, and in time learned to go through the daily routine faithfully and well. But even with such a man in the Comptroller's chair there is the ever-present danger that his entry into office may be followed by no halcyon period of calm, during which a financial genius may be incubated, but that he may encounter rough weather at the outset. A Comptroller's inexperience may seriously derange the whole banking mechanism of the country if troublous times follow his induction into office. Even the well-meaning though incompetent man has often been lacking. There have been too many cases where flagrant appointments of receivers, bank examiners, and others made for political ends have prostituted the large and profitable appointive power of the Comptroller to the basest uses. Mr. Dawes himself has not been free from this very reproach, and in his own State has carefully used his appointive power to prepare the ground for the Senatorial honor that he covets.

While it is in these practical aspects that bankers and men of affairs will judge a Comptroller, the function of issuing a comprehensive annual report will appeal more strongly to the theoretical student of banking. It is safe to say that nowhere in the world can be found so complicated and extensive a mechanism as our national banking system. No Government officer in Europe or America has the means to collect such a volume of information, or one of such recognized and universal value to students. No investigator is offered such a wonderful tool of research as the Comptroller's office rightly used. Students who now read the official writings of John Jay Knox can feel only admiration at the breadth of view and the powerful grasp displayed in his reports. As compared with the classic writings of Knox, illustrated here and there by a few illuminating tables of statistics, the current volumes present but a shabby contrast. A vast aggregation of ill-arranged figures, gathered often with great labor, but quite frequently of no value either to student or practical man of affairs, a badly digested review of the year in which the report appears—perhaps an investigation of some minor point suggested by a half-baked student of banking, or a few trite suggestions for legislation—these are all that the Comptroller now has to offer. By the side of such reports as those of the Austrian Statistical Office, based on far less wealth of material, but employing the pens of the keenest statistical experts, the work of our Comptroller's office makes a poor showing.

To act as helmsman and pilot to the credit institutions of the country, honestly to safeguard the interests of stockholders and creditors of mismanaged banks, without favor or hope of political reward, to initiate and continue reforms in bank examination, to pursue the repression of fraud, to take advantage of an unsurpassed opportunity for the ascertainment of facts for which the world is anxiously waiting, is mark enough for the ambition of any man. But no such ideal can be attained until the office of Comptroller is taken out of politics and made the prize, not of any favorite son or son-in-law, but of eminence in practical banking or in theoretical investigation. The Comptroller's office should not be a place of apprenticeship for bank presidents. It calls for the exercise of knowledge, and not its acquirement.

THE LATEST FAILURE OF CO-OPERATION.

The dispatches from the fishing port of Grimsby, at the mouth of the Humber, on the northeast coast of England, indicate the approach of a climax in the labor dispute which has brought that place near to ruin during the past few months. Until this dispute arose, there were few ports in the world that could compete with Grimsby in the amount or value of their daily catch of fish. A large number of vessels were constantly employed in the North Sea, and furnished work to several thousand fishermen. Within recent years there has been a change in the nature of the industry, and sailing vessels that were owned and commanded by the same man have had to give place to steam trawlers owned by limited-liability companies. In this way the fishing industry has been exploited by capital, and, as in so many other occupations, small independent producers have had to become employees in the business they once controlled. The more scientific exploitation of the fishing business has resulted primarily in diminishing the quantity of fish to be had. Not only are the steam trawlers free from the limitations imposed by the weather upon the old fishing smacks, but they also gather in many small fish that are of no value. It is said that twenty immature fish are sacrificed for every one of sufficient size caught. Under these circumstances it has been necessary to make longer voyages and to be content with much smaller hauls. Larger supplies of coal and other stores have unavoidably been carried, and more has been paid in wages for small catches of fish.

The decrease in product and the increase in expense have gone so far that the owners' association has for some time been searching for a means of economizing. Hitherto the officers of the vessels have been employed upon a coöperative plan, and have received payment in proportion to the success of each voyage. Common seamen, on the other hand, have been paid weekly wages. The companies, in their search for modes of reducing expenses, finally decided to offer the coöperative plan to all employees, and to make wages depend upon the success of the vessels engaged. It was thought that such a plan would result in greater activity on the part of the men, and would save the companies from serious loss in case of unsuccessful voyages. The terms thus proposed were, however, rejected, on the ground that the men could not take any risk; and even when the offer was amended by the insertion of maximum and minimum points, beyond which the risk should not extend, it was contended that employees "could not afford" to have their wages "fluctuate" in such a way. On the other hand, the officers of the fishing vessels, who had all along been working on the coöperative plan, suddenly became dissatisfied, and complained that they had been unjustly treated in consequence of the high price of the provisions furnished to the vessels, so that they were mulcted of their legitimate profits on settling days. Thus a highly complicated labor problem was presented, and the resultant strike has now brought the town to the verge of starvation and anarchy.

Involved as this particular situation is, the principle at stake is very simple, and rests merely upon the old question of methods of industrial remuneration. Shall the laborer be paid upon the basis of product turned out, or shall his remuneration be fixed beforehand and depend merely upon the outcome of competition? And, granting that the co-operative principle is to be employed, shall not the worker be guaranteed at all events a "living wage"? At this point, of course, difficulties begin. Just what a "living wage" should be, no one has yet been able to say. According to Dr. Johnson, "no man will be a sailor who has contrivance to get himself into a gaol." If his remark be true, living wages ought, perhaps, to be very high in the fishing industry, if we mean such wages as will induce men to work. Some have attempted to define living wages as "the rate of pay that will support men in ordinary comfort and enable them to bring forward a normal supply of population"—a criterion more useful in academic discussion than in the settlement

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of practical questions. The controversy about living wages, in fact, seems so impossible and out of harmony with the known conditions of human life that it is hardly worth while to continue it. Reduced to the aphorism that the world owes every man a living, it has been pretty thoroughly drummed out of the popular mind.

The battle over the coöperative question is nearly as barren as that over living wages. The Grimsby fishing dispute throws a glaring side-light upon the well-known weakness of coöperation, since it presents men not as clamoring in the familiar way for coöperation, but as making complaint against it. It puts the fishermen in the light of insisting that fixed wages shall be paid them, whether the industry produces anything or not. It puts the officers of the vessels on record as beginning to complain of coöperation when trade is bad, although satisfied with it when times are good. No more striking commentary upon the coöperative question could be made than the statement that the men "could not afford to have their wages fluctuate." The fact is, that experience has shown that bodies of men are always willing to have their wages fluctuate upward, but never downward. They are willing to share profits, but they are never ready to divide losses. They believe in profit-sharing, but they turn with disgust from deficit-sharing.

There is one point upon which laborers and the labor school of economists never seem clear—it is the source from which wages are paid. Apparently, they expect capital to act as a buffer, taking all the risks of loss in industry, but never insisting on corresponding gains, thus violating the principles of insurance, and blinking the fact that profits are far more of the nature of winnings than of earnings, and that fat seasons must be averaged with lean, profitable industries with unprofitable. Coöperators cannot apply their favorite patent medicine for discontent only to healthy industries, and leave the sick ones to languish.

THE FRANCO-RUSSIAN ALLIANCE.

Just five years ago the present Czar visited Paris, and the transports of the populace showed clearly that they not only approved the Russian alliance, but were firmly convinced that the pact, the reality of which was denied on many sides, was firmly knit. Not long before the Parisian fêtes, Bismarck had cynically revealed his *chef d'œuvre* of duplicity, the secret convention between Germany and Russia, which, until 1890, made Germany's position as head of the Triple Alliance one of the hollowest insincerity. At the time of the Czar's visit, François Charmes, the veteran chronicler for the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, remarked, "Bismarck was perhaps wrong to expose prematurely one of his master strokes to the admiration, or rather to the imitation, of the world." The implication that President Faure or Hanotaux, then Minister for Foreign Affairs, had shown a Bismarckian astuteness in gaining the Russian alliance, did them too much honor. As a matter of fact, although then and now French enthusiasm has been more to the fore, it was Russia, not France, that was looking for an ally.

Russia had brought out of the war with Turkey something very like a national humiliation. Grave disaster had been averted only through the assistance of Rumania; and when Constantinople, the goal of centuries of Russian aspiration, was in sight, the Czar found himself checked by an "unholy alliance" of the Powers which asserted the Beaconsfieldian doctrine of the integrity of the Ottoman Empire. The victory thus proved a hollow one, and the isolation of Russia in Europe became strikingly apparent. In 1889, a year before the equivocal convention with Germany had expired, it was possible for Alexander III. to toast the Prince of Montenegro as "Russia's only sincere and faithful friend."

France, at the western end of Europe, was still smarting under the defeat of 1871, and was, like Russia, without allies, and surrounded by neighbors suspicious, traditionally hostile, or actively unfriendly. It needed little to bring these two isolated nations together. On the occasion of the visit of the French squadron to Cronstadt in 1891, Alexander III. rose at the playing of the "Marseillaise," and later toasted the "profound sympathies that unite the two countries." The declarations of friendship by Russia became, with a certain coquetry, ever more outspoken. When the Russian fleet in 1893 visited Toulon, the "sympathies" of the previous occasion had become "bonds which unite the two countries." By 1896, when the young Czar and the Czarina were tumultuously received in Paris, these "bonds" had become "precious," and "brotherhood in arms" had been ventured. Meanwhile, the French investing classes had absorbed vast quantities of Russian bonds of a more tangible nature. The privilege of first pronouncing the now famous words *nations amies et alliées*, was reserved for President Faure, when, in 1897, he repaid the Czar's visit. He himself has left the record of the adroitness and tact with which he carried his amiable person and his historic white gaiters through the intricacies of imperial ceremonial.

It has often been said that in all these transactions France played the monkey to Russia, to whom all the chestnuts were sure to fall. Such a judgment underestimated the value of the motive of national self-respect. From the Franco-Prussian war France had been practically ignored in the councils of Europe; from the time that the alliance with Russia was generally known, no European reckoning which left France out was valid. Mere glory this, one might say, but it would be to misread the testimony of French history not to see that glory has ever played a major part in French affairs.

The present visit of the Czar to France and the appropriate festivities will be followed by the usual bond subscription in Paris, but the deeper import of the event is simply this, that it shows to the Powers of Europe, and particularly to the Triple Alliance, that the friendship between France and Russia remains unshaken. For the French Ministry, the visit is timely. A general enthusiasm which will deafen the ranting of the Nationalists and still the snarling of the more radical Socialists, is a sound political asset; and the Parliamentary elections are not far away. It is more difficult to see any ultimate advantage to France—except the gratification of national *amour-propre* already mentioned—from the continuance of the alliance. For some years past, France has been the freer to act in Africa because Russia was her ally, but that has not prevented the snub at Fashoda; nor, in any event, would the advance towards Morocco and the Niger have been opposed by England. France and Russia have, however, had the satisfaction, if such it be, of turning the Beaconsfieldian doctrine on Great Britain, and preventing interference with the Turks in Armenia. In general, it must be said that the strength of the alliance in France rests upon a national instinct which, if not wholly rational, is, nevertheless, irresistible and likely to be enduring.

Russia, on the contrary, finds enormous potential advantages in the alliance. Some day the story of the passage of the Balkans may repeat itself, and, with France on Russia's side, no future Congress of Berlin could arrest the victorious armies of the Czar within sight of Constantinople. One might exhaust speculation in conjuring up further possibilities of this brotherhood in arms; for it should not be forgotten that, as the nature of the Czar's reception indicates, this is a military alliance or nothing; but mere facile readjustments of the map of Europe have ceased to be amusing. It is clear enough, from what has been said, that if the "marriage," as "Félisque" Faure loved to call it, is ever dissolved, the provocation is not likely to come from Russia.

A PHILIPPINE EXCURSION.

JOLO, August 2, 1901.

A high wind was churning the shallow waters of Manila Bay into white-capped hills and ridges when the United States Army transport *Lawton* set forth on her cruise among the southern islands. On his official

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tour of inspection, for the purpose of reorganization and consolidation, thereby effecting a large reduction in military expenditure, General Corbin had invited to accompany him a number of friends—an unusual opportunity, indeed, to see remote and otherwise inaccessible parts of the archipelago, for those fortunate enough to be included. Almost as beautiful as the far-famed Inland Sea of Japan, the waterways among these exquisite islands have afforded rare effects of color, of sunshine and shadow chasing over smooth green fields or heavily wooded ridges and ravines; while sharp peaks, green to their summits and catching bits of filmy vapor, like shreds of a gauze veil softening every outline, rise from countless islands high into the southern sky. Mount Halcon, on Mindoro, reaches an altitude of nearly 9,000 feet from the sea. For scenic beauty alone the trip would be memorable; but landscape and sea and sky have been but the setting.

At Panay Island, in the lovely little bay of Iloilo, second city of importance in the archipelago, the *Lawton* anchored the next evening after starting, just as a flaming sunset turned the rippling waters into dusky scarlet, molten, sombre. Almost entirely destroyed by the insurgents, and rebuilt in modern fashion, Iloilo is remarkably clean and correspondingly unpicturesque. Corrugated iron roofs are undoubtedly convenient to transport, and efficient for their purpose, but they do not add to the decorative effect of a town. One sighs for the old tiles of softened, dingy red, so frequently seen elsewhere in the islands; even for the weather-stained native thatch. The ancient Spanish church is practically all that escaped shot and flame, and here are quaint altar fittings, and paintings, often of painfully suggestive subjects, but interesting withal. To the feminine mind, Iloilo is inseparably connected with the manufacture of *jusi*, that fascinating diaphanous cloth of pineapple fibre, showing gleaming stripes of silk in many delicate shades. Woven by women in their homes, on primitive looms, hours might pass happily in watching the dainty fabric grow under the swiftly flying shuttles of the little brown workers, crouching at their toil. It is sold by the piece of twenty-four Spanish yards. The islands in general present no such bewildering array of tempting articles as China or Japan, but two or three products are famous, besides paper and string. Of them all, this cloth is the most attractive; with probably Manila hats and cigars closely following. Also, to be in strictly good Philippine form, one should collect bolos and other native knives and spears, thousands of which have been turned in by surrendering insurgents, or, in many cases, presented to officers by loyal Filipino leaders. Another fad, less expensive than the purchase of these fine ivory-handled Toledo blades, and indulged in by army ladies and others who may have the opportunity, is the collecting of native hats, oddly peaked, betasselled, flat or spiral, and of many colors and materials. A room exclusively decorated by Filipino hats and knives, with the native mats woven of bamboo, is a far from unattractive apartment.

Panay, in area equal to Connecticut, consists of swampy jungle on its eastern coast, but is finely mountainous on the west, while its interior, as a brilliant young officer stationed at Iloilo remarked, is made up of "everything, from the bad lands of Arizona to the Garden of Eden." As a matter of fact, palms, mangoes, and bamboo flourish luxuriantly, as well as the necessary and more practical hemp and rice. The people are Visayans, with another language from the more widely spread Tagalog, and certain racial differences in addition. At their midday meal they form a curious if unappetizing sight. A barge-load of natives, who had been conveying ashore several tons of commissary supplies from the *Lawton*, were resting and eating alongside during their two hours of noon luxury. Rice and a bright green vegetable soup appeared to be the bill of fare, dipped out from central bowls into the variegated hats of each, from which handfuls were successfully and speedily extracted by the hungry owners. Five or six fistfuls constituted a full meal. One man, producing a very good brim minus the crown of his head-gear, had difficulties in managing his share.

On the way to Calbayog, on Samar Island, occurs some of the most beautiful scenery. A short stop only was made at Calbayog, Samar being one of the few places where more or less desultory fighting is still going on. At Cebu, too, we made but a short stay. The town lies at the head of a pretty bay, on entering which Mactan Island is passed, where the gallant Magellan was killed in a foolish skirmish nearly four hundred years ago, after having discovered and taken possession of the Philippine Islands in the name of Charles I. of Spain. A monument was erected to him, and in the town another monument marks the spot where, in 1521, the first religious service in the islands was held. Native boats at Cebu are even longer and more narrow than those of the north, and the outriggers are more fantastic. It induces an odd feeling of proprietorship to see little American flags flying gayly from these indigenous craft, instead of the Dutch, English, German, or Siamese ensigns proudly fluttering from similar peaks, to which for months we have been accustomed. Here, too, occasional fighting occurs, and some firing into the town takes place every night. But the people about the streets seemed friendly and good-natured, evidently amazed and disappointed if we paid them, without protest, the asking price for the pretty mats woven there.

The towns grew more interesting with every southward mile. At Zamboanga, on Mindanao, we met the first Moros of the trip, again with different characteristics, dress, and language; they are also devout Mohammedans, and firm allies of the Americans, against whom they have never offered the least shadow of revolt. On the beach were drawn up boats of another pattern from those of the north, with high, divided sterns delicately carved and ornamented. Through the middle of the principal street runs a quiet stream, grass-bordered and shady—the town water supply. Both Moro and Filipino villages were gay with scarlet cloth, flags, and white fringes for a three days' fiesta to begin on the morrow. But, even with merry-making in the air, the Moro nipa shacks were still the scene of much industry, old women busily weaving the brilliant red and yellow stripes and plaids in a sort of cotton, worn as sarongs and turbans. The foliage has here a more tropical appearance than in other islands; cocoanut-palm groves abound, with banana and bread-fruit. Tiny rice plants were being set out in the acres of paddy-fields, or else the watery squares were in process of ploughing, the caribao being used for this congenial employment.

Still south the *Lawton* pursued her placid way, past islands dreaming in softened summer haze, or half hidden by sunlit showers sweeping over green valleys and precipitous peaks, until the anchor was again cast—this time at the mouth of the Rio Grande de Mindanao. Seven or eight miles up the river, reached by launches, is the charming little town of Catabato. Fish weirs, dotted over with the black heads of natives at work on their spoil, were conspicuous at first, the river banks later becoming low and heavily wooded, as we rapidly steamed up stream. Vultures on every dead tree, above their huge, straggling nests; monkeys leaping from branch to branch; brilliant blue kingfishers flashing across the water; the peculiar river plant, like a lettuce-head, so frequent everywhere, collecting in little floating islands here and there—every mile of the Rio Grande had its own charm. Streams, large and small, enter the river at intervals, and native rafts, apparently propelled through grass and shrubs, followed a labyrinthine course past shacks, far into the country toward the hills. A company of soldiers, a band, and an impromptu crowd of Moros greeted the arrival at Catabato. Very black, in a minimum of clothes, their brilliant turbans arranged in a cocky point over one ear, their belts full of knives, the Moros watched us interestedly as we strolled through the shady, grass-grown streets to the home of the commanding officer. They flocked around us, offering knives, spears, even shields for very small prices, speaking a sort of Spanish not hard to understand; but their own personality was more curious than anything they had to sell. Had time allowed, however, a very good collection might have been made at Catabato—and of weapons actually in use, not the new iron blades and hastily carved handles already beginning to be offered by the more sophisticated natives elsewhere.

For actual beauty Jolo is the most satisfying town of the trip. The *Burnside*, with Gen. Greely on board, engaged in laying and looking after cables, was found here when we anchored, and three towns, with a truly splendid mountain background, stretched along the shore. At the left of Jolo itself a native village, called locally Bus Bus, shows a long line of nipa shacks and the more pretentious white dwelling of a former wife of the Sultan. On the extreme right another village, Tullie, spreads itself well out into the water, the huts barely raised above high tide on stilt-like foundations, their floors of bamboo, with wide cracks allowing confusing glimpses of gently flowing waves but a few inches below. Landing on the well-built pier, an imposing gateway admits us to the wide, finely shaded street, where shops kept by Indians and Chinese, American soldiers passing back and forth, fine bands playing a variety of modern airs, Filipinos hovering about, Moros curiously following, charming old Spanish gardens separated from the street by low parapets of masonry, fountains tinkling, monuments, and a native market, present a panorama of cosmopolitan combinations never before brought together. Over all is an air of quiet, of unhurried restfulness, of cool repose, which is peculiarly grateful, and caused more than one

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member of our company to wish for a long detail in these enchanting shades.

Except among the Negritos, I have noticed no especial evidence of disease. Leprosy does prevail to some extent, but an island, Cagayan, has been set apart as an isolating station, and all known cases are being collected in the hospital at Manila. Already six hundred are being carefully looked after, and the natives are said to assist the army surgeons in their attempts to find the afflicted lepers, instead of hiding them, as the Hawaiians formerly did. The great success of vaccination here, in stamping out smallpox, has inspired the feeling that the other dread disease also may be eradicated by doing as the Americanos wish. In Jolo the climate, while warm, is apparently not enervating. Indeed, nowhere in the islands is that striking paleness, so marked in Singapore and Bangkok, observable in foreigners.

One of the leading Moros invited us to his house, over the sea, into which one ventured by a precarious bridge of bamboo above the waves. Here he exhibited first his knives and embroideries, next his pearls, and then his five wives, of whom the favorite was a stout, good-humored damsel, quite young enough to be his daughter. Of the pearls collected in these waters, over $350,000 worth had been shipped to various countries the day before we reached Jolo, so that those remaining here were not in great numbers, or of especially perfect form and lustre. But several were of great size. Outside the walls of the town is the "knife market," an open space, partly roofed with native mats, where Moros are allowed to come with their weapons for barter. On sorry-looking nags the men and boys galloped up, their brilliant rags fluttering in the breeze, their twisted belts full of knives, spears held aloft, and gay turbans above their straggling black hair. Here we found the constant barong, short and wide-bladed, with handle of ivory or ebony or caribao-horn, inlaid with pearl and ivory, the longer and less frequent wavy blade of the kris, and the still longer, cleft steel of the campilan, its handle ornamented with horsehair tassels. With betel-blackened smiles on their amiable, swarthy faces, and fully aware of the value of their beloved weapons, the Moros told the virtues of each blade in a composite dialect, in which I recognized considerable Malay and more or less Spanish. The experience was as interesting as the relics.

Later in the day a Moro dance was held in the middle of the wide village street, or plaza, and when we arrived a large audience had collected around the roped space. Soldiers leaned on their guns, and pretty Filipino women looked from upper balconies. People of many races—Chinese, Malay, Moro, Filipino, Indian—waited patiently, while each shade-tree held its complement of agile spectators. In the centre were spread large straw mats, and the music had already begun. Two metal drums were hung from trees and beaten by men with padded sticks. Below them a woman squatted on the ground before eight circular bronze implements, in shape like covered bowls, set on two wires stretched in a long box, upon which she played with bare sticks. They appeared to be tuned in some sort of minor scale, but neither the harmonic nor melodic, though the third was true minor. The seventh was lacking. The strange melodies produced were emphatically syncopated, made more jerky by the accent of the big gongs overhead and of two long drums lying upon the ground near by, beaten on their ends of tightly stretched fur by the flat palms of a man and a woman. Spurred on by this apparently exciting music, a man sprang out upon the mat, his face stern and determined, and began to pose and gesticulate. He appeared to hitch himself around by his toes, with hands and arms stiffly yet gracefully curving, rigid yet constantly changing, and held aloft in strange contortions. A second soon joined him, adding to the effect by a peculiar hunching of back and shoulders. In what the especially fine points of the performance consisted, we did not know, but every moment or two the crowd would break into wild cries of joy at certain motions and expressions, as, with head well over the left shoulder, the men pursued one another majestically around the mat. Several sets of dancers followed, generally in trousers of gray or striped cotton, so tight that it seemed their limbs must have been melted and poured in, bright-colored silk jackets with gold buttons, and two or three gay sashes wound and rewound about their waists, through which handsome knives were thrust on the left side, while the right bulged with the safely stowed betel-boxes, of silver or brass. The heads were always encased in brilliant turbans, and frequently some startling scarf was thrown across one shoulder.

Later, two women came upon the scene very shyly, their wide sarongs draped from the neck, their posturing much like the Malay in the Dutch East Indies, with suggestions of the Japanese. Then two little girls appeared, in gorgeously colored brocade, little coats and tight skirts, black hair done up in hard knots and surrounded by gold buttons, their fingers covered with rings, their arms with bracelets. Toward the end two men came on, with spears and shields, and had a dance and mock conflict combined, much to the glee of the crowd, who watched the solemn-faced lunges, the stamping, and the given and evaded thrusts, with shouts and yells of approval. At last the master of ceremonies, an old fellow in a bright yellow turban and very flat face, in which the nostrils made two perpendicular caverns, stepped in and drew the actors apart. One of them had looked so fierce, and had come so near "sticking" his adversary, that I fancied the manager of the ring feared a sort of "amok" spirit was growing, and might break loose. To soothe our disappointment, a man stepped forth and balanced a spear, point downward, upon his tongue, at which the crowd, led by half-a-dozen Americans, broke into applause—a new demonstration to them. And there we sat together, Gen. Corbin, Gen. Greely, Capt. Nichols, Capt. Sage, and other officers equally famous in making this world's history, with two or three ladies—surrounded, as regards one another, by our own atmosphere of social convention, but set in the midst of this wild Moro scene! On the green bank above, a black monkey walked about, surveying us.

As the closing event of this noteworthy afternoon a very old man, fired by remembrance of his youthful prowess, hobbled to the mat, smiling feebly, and uncertainly brandishing spear and shield as if challenging any opponent to mortal combat. This mightily pleased the crowd, which sent up a great shout, doubly augmented when a second grandfather, his toothless mouth working, his face one hieroglyph of wrinkles, crept on to accept the challenge. The old men began, and the crowd went wild with joy. Gradually the years fell from them, their dim eyes flashed, their sunken cheeks filled out, their bony arms seemed infused with iron strength, and they danced about each other, aiming, lunging, parrying, and growing more agile with every moment as their stiffened limbs renewed the early joys of conflict, until a temporary fire of youth seemed to flood their wrinkled bodies and animate the hardened muscles. It was veritably another "Dr. Heidegger's Experiment," with only a long-forgotten activity and applause as the magic potion.

During the evening, while a charming reception, given us by the officers, was in progress, the Sultan of Moro appeared with all his suite. This was a surprise, as his Majesty Hadji Mohammed Jamabul Kiram was reported as many miles distant on a battlefield, where he and a rebellious *dato* have for some weeks been settling their differences. And, indeed, he was arrayed, not in the gold embroidery and sashes of state, but in the green turban and dingy garments of conflict, having heard of the General's arrival and hastened straight from the front to do him honor. With a strong face the Sultan, and one or two men of marked forcefulness in his suite, after his official interview, stood for a few moments watching the American dancing, before returning to his distant camp.

The Moros are proving effective allies in the matter of forestry, which, to our credit be it said, is conducted in the Philippines more extensively and intelligently than we have seen fit to insist upon at home. The bureau was organized by Capt. George P. Ahern of the Ninth Infantry, upon the Spanish system, already in force here for half a century, but more particularly modelled upon the successful form practised in India and Java. We have at present in the archipelago 40,000,000 acres of protected forest, in which concessions for one year are granted under conditions. No tree less than fourteen inches in diameter may be cut, and in some species even larger ones are preserved, while certain rare or especially valuable varieties may not be taken at all. The method of felling is also insisted upon, and is planned to injure as little as possible the trees remaining. It is a delight to learn of the intelligent attention given this important subject here, although trained American foresters are so rare that some of the offices provided for by Congress are still unfilled, owing to the lack of men competent to fill them. Many of the assistants under Mr. McCabe, now Chief of the Bureau, are Filipinos, and in Mindoro a Moro Chief, the Raja Mujdi Mandi, is doing excellent work in looking after all the trees in his province. He is greatly interested in the subject, and sees that the rules are enforced, as no American could do. The Moro method of dealing with infringements is summary and necessarily successful. Heads fall easily under Moro rule. Concessions, however, are withdrawn by the Bureau in every case if conditions are not complied with.

Four islands are especially well wooded,

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Mindoro, Paragua, Mindanao, and Basilon, 5,000,000 acres in the first alone being public forest land. Already 884 kinds of trees have been classified, and frequently squared logs from 90 to 120 feet in length are obtained. If Congress but ratifies permanently the fine provisional regulations now in force, we shall be spared the humiliating and disgraceful spectacle so frequent at home of miles of forest cut down indiscriminately, even to saplings, and then burned over, to "clean up" the débris; and our islands will yield a rich revenue from their wealth of timber, scarcely diminished as future generations come upon the scene. In the matter of gutta trees especially the wasteful native method of felling the tree to obtain an inferior and impure quality of gutta is being replaced by the far more remunerative and merciful way now prevalent in Java, of gathering the precious sap from the leaves and bark. A purer article results, and the tree is uninjured, while producing even more in quantity.

MABEL LOOMIS TODD.

THE CABINET OF MEDALS.

PARIS, September 6, 1901.

M. Ernest Babelon, member of the Institute, has recently published a very interesting book on the 'Department of Medals and Antique Gems of the National Library,' commonly called the Cabinet of Medals. This collection is not as often visited as it ought to be; it is not well known, except to a few learned people, and is modestly lodged in a quiet corner of our famous National Library. The numismatic series is of incomparable wealth; the gallery of cameos and intaglios of ancient times and of the Renaissance period is unrivalled. The Cabinet was formed by the Kings of France, as early as the middle-age period. It is easily seen, in all the portraits which we possess of the time of the Valois, that the fashion of wearing gems on the prevailing gorgeous costumes was well established; but long before the Renaissance these antique gems were much admired. We possess catalogues of the gems of Philippe-Auguste, of Jean le Bon, of Charles V. and his brothers, of the Duke of Anjou, and of the Duke de Berry, and we can but be surprised at the extraordinary number and beauty of the precious monuments of antique art which they were able to collect in their châteaux. These châteaux, as well as the Treasures of churches and monasteries, were the museums of their time. All who have visited the Apollo Gallery in the Louvre can judge of the beauty of the Treasure which once belonged to the Sainte-Chapelle.

Francis I., Henri II., and Catherine de Médicis had splendid galleries of works of art of all sorts, and were great collectors; they even sent collectors to the East to find manuscripts and curiosities. Charles IX. organized for the first time the Cabinet of Medals. In 1560, he gave orders to make an inventory of all the works of art kept at Fontainebleau; he sent to the Louvre all the collections kept in the royal castles. Unfortunately, these works were dispersed again during the civil wars. After the pacification of the kingdom, Henri IV. reconstituted the Cabinet of Medals. We possess an original document, showing in what spirit Henri IV. wished to reorganize a museum. The King orders the "Master of the Cabinet of Antique Gems" to buy several private collections; he particularly commends to him "the cameos of agate and other hard stones containing histories, fables, triumphs, moralities of the ancient Greeks and Romans; the busts of the Roman Emperors in bronze, a number of ancient marble statues, etc." This document shows that, in the spirit of Henri IV., the Cabinet was really to be composed of all the remains of antiquity which might be collected.

The death of Henri IV. was fatal to the collection, which was organized by the care of Bagarris, the Director. Bagarris retired to his native place in Provence in 1612, and for a time had no successor. Louis XIII., in a letter addressed to his brother Gaston, Duke of Orleans, tells him frankly that he does not care for antiquities and medals, and sends him some old coins recently found at Chantilly (which had been confiscated after the rebellion of Henry of Montmorency, and remained some time in the hands of Louis XIII.). Gaston d'Orléans was a great amateur. In 1630, when he was only twenty-two years old, he sent to Rome a certain Claude Vignon, who collected many curious objects; fifty-six boxes of them were sent from Rome to Gaston in a single invoice. Towards 1638 Raphael Trichet du Fresne travelled for him, and sent him numerous objects which adorned the castle of Blois and the Luxembourg.

In 1660, Gaston d'Orléans, who had been a collector all his life, left to King Louis XIV., his nephew, all his treasures. Louis XIV. accepted the legacy by "letters patent" which he registered in Parliament on June 5, 1663. In these letters, the King expresses his gratitude to his uncle for "the present he has made to us and to our crown of all his medals in gold, silver, and bronze, of his cameos and engraved stones, which were confided to the care of the Sieur Bruno, etc." This Bruno was a certain Bénigne Bruno, Sieur of Montmuzar, who was the Librarian of the Duke of Orleans. Nearly at the same time, in 1662, the nephew of the famous Sully, Hippolyte de Béthune, left a fine collection during his lifetime to Louis XIV.; Queen Christina of Sweden had offered Béthune 700,000 *écus* for this collection. Many collections were in succession added to these, and in 1684, by order of Louis XIV., Louvois transferred the Cabinet of Medals to Versailles. The King paid a visit to it almost every day. Many collectors, in order to obtain the royal favor, made presents to this Cabinet, among others the President de Harlay, the Duke of Valentinois, the Elector of Mayence, who offered the arms and the gold jewels taken from the tomb of Childeric I.

During the reign of Louis XV., the collections were transferred from Versailles to Paris, in order to make them more accessible to the learned world. The Rue Colbert furnishes a communication between the Rue Richelieu and the Rue Vivienne; in the eighteenth century this Rue Colbert was covered, in the part which ends at the Rue Richelieu, by an arcade over which was the apartment of the Marquise de Lambert, a lady who had a salon of which Fontenelle was one of the stars. The rooms which the Marquise had inhabited were, after her death, used for the installation of the Cabinet of Medals. Some of the cases in which the medals were placed still exist, and deserve to be cited as models of the Louis XV. style. Vanloo, Natoire, Boucher were employed for the decorations of the rooms, which received also two magnificent portraits of Louis XIV. and Louis XV., afterwards destroyed during the Revolution. During this latter period, the Cabinet of Medals and Antiquities received many of the works of art taken from the Treasures of the churches, which had in 1790 been declared national property. Unfortunately, these Treasures did not wholly become national. In the disorder of the times which followed, the objects preserved for centuries in churches, convents, as well as in the châteaux of the émigrés, were dispersed, if not destroyed. We possess only remains of the archæologic Treasures of the Sainte-Chapelle, of the Cathedral of Chartres, of the Abbeys of Sainte-Geneviève and of Saint-Denis.

Some important additions were made in the nineteenth century to the Cabinet of Medals; the Roman and Byzantine diptychs in ivory; the Gallo-Roman ornaments found at Nasium; the Egyptian monuments brought by Cailliaud from Thebes and Meroe; the silver treasure found at Berthouville (Department of Eure), in the ruins of a Temple of Mercury; the painted vases of the collection of Edmond Durand; the Etruscan painted vases of Prince Torlonia; the cameos and the enamelled jewel attributed to Benvenuto Cellini, left by Henri Beck; the Merovingian treasure of Gourdon, in the Department of the Côte-d'Or; the Gallo-Roman bronzes left by Prosper Dupré. In 1862, the Duke de Luynes left to the Cabinet the celebrated collection which adorned his castle at Dampierre.

The former rooms of the Marquise de Lambert had become too small for all the collections, and it was necessary to make new arrangements. It was a very unfortunate necessity. "Those," says M. Babelon, "who have known the old Cabinet of Medals and its elegance, and have lived in its memories, will always regret it." Since 1865, the Cabinet has been placed in large rooms, in the midst of the Department of Printed Books of the National Library, but it will soon be transferred to a new building nearly finished on the side of the Rue Vivienne. The noble example set by the Duke de Luynes was followed by the Viscount de Janzé and the Duke de Blacas. In 1869, Napoleon III. gave the Cabinet the splendid gold medallions of the Treasure of Tarsus. He had already given it the numismatic collection offered to him by Saïd Pasha, the Khedive of Egypt. Several other gifts have increased the collections.

The first catalogue of the Cabinet, systematically written, was made by Chabouillet in 1858; it is now very incomplete. At the time of the Exhibitions of 1867 and 1889, "Summary Descriptions" were made, but these are now out of print, and are besides very incomplete. The present 'Illustrated Guide' is very perfect; it was prepared by M. Babelon, on the occasion of the last Exhibition; but Babelon himself tells us that he could describe only the monuments of ancient art most important and most worthy of the attention of the general public. His charming volume, though it cannot take the place of the special and very technical catalogues which are in process of publication, is, however, very worthy of a welcome in any good library; it is invaluable for all collectors, and will inspire all who read it with a taste for archæological studies. I will here indicate two special publications,

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emanating from the same source, which have already appeared: 'Catalogue of the Antique Bronzes of the National Library,' by MM. Babelon, Member of the Institute, and Blanchet; 'Catalogue of the Cameos of the National Library,' by M. Babelon. These catalogues are very detailed, and contain many illustrations.

Correspondence.

PRESIDENTIAL HANDSHAKING.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Whatever other results may flow from the assassination of President McKinley, let us hope that that object-lesson may be sufficient to put an end to our national habit of promiscuous handshaking in public. It is hard to conceive of a spectacle more fatuous and less edifying than that of a horde of country bumpkins, criminals, cranks, idlers, and curiosity-mongers standing in line waiting for a chance to grab and squeeze the hand of the unhappy Chief Executive of this country. This habit, springing from a primitive desire on the part of the multitude to touch the person or garment of a sovereign ruler, and fortified by the commonly held belief that all men, in America at least, are really equal, is clearly a superfluous anachronism in our day and age. The clasping of hands, a custom sanctioned by usage from times immemorial, signifies, among intelligent beings at least, primarily mutual acquaintance, esteem, and friendship. Where the parties are absolute strangers to each other, as was the case at Buffalo, the ceremony is meaningless, obviously dangerous, and unworthy the high office of President of the United States. We owe much in this respect to Thomas Jefferson and Andrew Jackson which it is doubtful if we can ever pay back in this world.

Popular regard for ancient traditions of "republican simplicity," and a well-grounded fear that the unprincipled scoundrels of modern journalism might make capital out of it, have undoubtedly deterred high public officials from putting an end to this silly and dangerous habit of promiscuous handshaking in public places. Whether Mr. Roosevelt, who has a reputation for enjoying personal encounters with bears and mountain lions as well as with Spaniards, will have the moral courage and appreciation of his public duty to protect the lives of himself and his successors by refusing, while holding the office of President, to submit to close and intimate personal contact with hordes of unvouched-for strangers, even if presumably friendly, is a matter of vital importance to all admirers of republican institutions. The psychological moment for abating a notorious public nuisance has evidently arrived. E. L. C. M.

CHICAGO, September 19, 1901.

ENGLISH CATHOLICS AND JESUITS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A newspaper review of a book is soon read and forgotten, but not so a review in the *Nation*, which, in a way, becomes a matter of record with a degree of permanence. For this reason I will ask you to allow me, in referring to your interesting review of Mr. Hume's works, "The Spanish People' and 'Treason and Plot,' to call attention to the fact that Mr. Hume does not seem to realize the distinction between Catholics and Jesuits. Mr. Hume speaks (you quote) of "this new patriotism that divided the Catholic forces in England." It was not a new patriotism. English Catholics were and are patriots, but the line then, as often since, was sharply drawn between English Catholics and Jesuits. The latter never were, or could be, in the truest sense of the word, patriots.

By a curious coincidence, in the same number of the *Nation* (August 29, 1901) which contains this review, 'A History of the Jesuits in England' is announced by J. B. Lippincott Company. This work, taken *with* Mr. Hume's, places the history of that time fairly before the reader. The books, in no way antagonistic, explain each other.

WILLIAM REED LEWIS.

COMBMARTIN, DEVONSHIRE, ENGLAND, September 10, 1901.

TENNYSONIANA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your correspondent "W. P. M.," in this week's issue of the *Nation*, asks what passage in the writings of St. Augustine is referred to by Lord Tennyson in his poem "Columbus," in the lines,

> "The great Augustine wrote that none could breathe
> Within the zone of heat; so might there be
> Two Adams, two mankinds, and that was clean
> Against God's word."

Tennyson probably had in mind the familiar passage in the 'City of God,' xvi. 9, where Augustine is arguing against a belief in the Antipodes, on the ground that this would involve either the impossible supposition that men had sailed around the world, or else that there had been some other progenitor of men besides Adam—an equally impossible supposition. I quote part of the passage:

"Quod vero et antipodas esse fabulantur, id est homines a contraria parte terrae, ubi sol oritur quando occidit nobis, adversa pedibus nostris calcare vestigia, nulla ratione credendum est. . . . Quoniam nullo modo Scriptura ista mentitur, quae narratis praeteritis facit fidem eo quod ejus praedicta complentur; nimisque absurdum est ut dicatur aliquos homines ex hac in illam partem, Oceani immensitate trajecta, navigare ac pervenire potuisse, ut etiam illic ex uno illo primo homine genus institueretur humanum."

JOHN WINTHROP PLATNER.

ANDOVER, MASS., September 20, 1901.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The *Evening Post*, speaking of Professor Bradley's Commentary on Tennyson's "In Memoriam," asks: "How are we profited, for example, by the following comment on

> " 'Tis better to have loved and lost
> Than never to have loved at all'?

" 'As a parallel to the last two lines (repeated lxxxv. 3, 4), Collins quotes Congreve, "Way of the World," II., 2, "'Tis better to have been left than never to have been loved." In the form of the expression there may be a reminiscence, certainly unconscious, of Campbell's "Jilted Nymph":

> " 'Better be courted and jilted
> Than never be courted at all." ' "

It would have greatly interested, if not profited, all readers of Tennyson had Professor Bradley commented upon and explained the striking similarity between the lines quoted from "In Memoriam" and the lines in Clough's "Peschiera,"

> " 'Tis better to have fought and lost
> Than never to have fought at all."

This poem is dated 1849—a year before "In Memoriam" was published. Lowell's rule for determining to whom a thought belongs does not apply in this case.

Respectfully, ALFALES YOUNG.

SALT LAKE CITY, UTAH.

MALAHACK.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In my boyhood fifty years ago at Canaan, N. H., the word *Malahack* was used less in the sense of "to cut awkwardly" than in that of "to cut injuriously," *e. g.*, to disfigure or maim—a tree, a piece of furniture, or an animal. Is it not possible that the coinage of the word was suggested by the word "maltreat"?

AMOS N. CURRIER.

STATE UNIVERSITY OF IOWA, September 17, 1901.

Notes.

A new translation of Tolstoy's 'Anna Karenin,' the first from the original Russian, it is alleged, by Mrs. Garnett, is announced by McClure, Phillips & Co.

A brief history of Russia from Peter the Great to Alexander II., by W. R. Morfill, and 'By the Waters of Sicily,' by Nora Lorimer, with illustrations, are to have James Pott & Co. for their American publishers.

'Wild Life Near Home,' by Dallas Lore Sharp, will soon be published by the Century Co.

In preparation by Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. is 'The Economics of Forestry,' by Dr. Fernow.

'The New Americans' is the changed title which Mr. Alfred Hodder has selected for the novel already announced by Macmillan Co.

'Our Martyr Presidents,' by John M. Coulter, is a subscription-book for the hour in the press of the George M. Hill Co., Chicago and New York.

Dana Estes & Co., Boston, will publish 'A Handbook of British Birds,' by J. E. Harting; 'A Year-Book of Famous Lyrics,' edited by Frederic Lawrence Knowles; and 'Among the Great Masters of Oratory' and 'Among the Great Masters of Painting,' by Walter Rowlands.

C. W. Bardeen, Syracuse, has acquired in trust for the daughters of the late Henry Barnard that educationist's publications, to be sold as long as copies remain; but the *American Journal of Education* will be reprinted—the 31st volume, for 1881, issued for the first time. The same publisher will bring out a 'History of Ancient and Mediæval Education,' in two volumes; 'English Words,' by Edwin W. Chubb; 'Manual of Civil Government for the Schools of New York,' by C. W. Bardeen, and 'Manual of Civil Government for the Schools of Ohio,' by Frank H. H. Roberts.

Additional announcements by Charles Scribner's Sons are 'The French Revolution and Religious Reform,' by Prof. W. M. Sloane; 'Plutarch's Themistocles and Aristides,' translated by Prof. Bernadotte Perrin of Yale; 'Victorian Prose Masters,' es-

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says by W. C. Brownell; and 'Bluegrass and Rhododendron: Outdoor Life in Kentucky,' by John Fox, jr.

Among the numerous books in preparation by the Clarendon Press (H. Frowde), we select for mention 'Milton's Prosody,' by R. Bridges; 'Classical Metres in English Verse,' by William Johnson Stone; 'The Troubadours of Dante,' by H. J. Chaytor; 'The Age of Bach and Handel,' by J. A. Fuller Maitland; 'Life and Correspondence of Thomas Cromwell, Earl of Essex,' by R. B. Merriman; 'The Welsh Wars of Edward I.,' by J. E. Morris; and 'An Antiquarian Companion to English History,' edited by F. P. Barnard.

Mr. Rae's 'Contemporary Socialism' (Scribners) merited our warm praise on its appearance in 1884. A second edition brought it down to 1891, and now a very thorough work has been fitly extended, in a supplementary chapter, to the present century. This increases the bulk of the volume by nearly one-tenth, showing that it has been executed in no perfunctory manner. "The two most important things in the history of the Socialist movement during the last ten years are the remarkable advance made in that period by the Social Democrats as a political party in several Continental countries, and their not less remarkable simultaneous growth in moderation."

The revival of interest in White's 'Selborne' is notable. The latest example is Messrs. L. C. Miall and W. Ward Flower's careful reprint of the original text of 1789 (London: Methuen & Co.; New York: Putnams). The diaries are here, as extracted by Dr. Aikin, but the Naturalist's Calendar has been omitted. The notes superadded to Gilbert White's are, of course, fresh. While the typography of this handy volume is condensed and not ornate, and there are no illustrations, as in some recent instances, this edition contains the substance of the naturalist and will claim a place of its own.

Volumes vii. to x. of Professor de Sumichrast's excellent translation of Gautier (George D. Sproul) contain the Italian and Eastern tours, Fortunio and other tales, and typical art-criticisms under the general heading of "The Louvre." The appreciative introductions are quite sufficiently exhaustive, without pedantic elaboration; and there is here no attempt to clear the name of Gautier from the easily justified charge of something more than indifference to ethical considerations. Among future selections of short stories, it is to be hoped that the translator may find room for "La Morte Amoureuse," on account of its condensation of dramatic intensity and the perfection of its style. We are compelled to remark that the frontispiece to "Constantinople" represents a Turkish interior with modern appointments unknown in Gautier's day.

The second and third volumes of Mr. G. C. Macaulay's edition of Gower (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde) contain the English Works—the "Confessio Amantis" and a short poem entitled "In Praise of Peace." Mr. Macaulay justifies the expectation with which scholars have looked forward to these volumes. Pauli's wretched text of the "Confessio" may now be laid on the shelf for good and all. The text offered by Mr. Macaulay is based on the Fairfax MS., with collation of several other codices, and is perfectly satisfactory. The history of the different recensions of the poem is determined with care and acuteness. There is an essay on Gower's language and metre, and the editor has appended a considerable body of explanatory and illustrative annotation. The least satisfactory part of Mr. Macaulay's labors is his discussion of the various stories which are strung together to make the "Confessio Amantis." But *non omnia possumus omnes*, and we are too grateful to be censorious.

Miss Jessie Weston contributes to the Grimm Library (London: David Nutt) a study of 'The Legend of Sir Lancelot du Lac,' which, though not very well digested, shows much industry and considerable learning and ingenuity. She finds the root of the story in a "*lai*, presumably Breton, dealing with the theft of a king's son by a water-fairy." The loves of Lancelot and Guinevere were, she thinks, introduced into this tale at a later time, under the special influence of the "Tristan." She also contends that there was very early contact between the "Lancelot" and the "Perceval," and that a continuation of this contact after Perceval became associated with the legend of the Grail was a very important factor in the development of the "Lancelot." Miss Weston's monograph is of particular interest to students of Malory. Her examination of the Dutch "Lancelot" and of Lenoire's 1533 text of the French prose enables her to correct Sommer's scheme of Malory's sources in a very striking way.

Professor Skeat has subjected his well-known 'Concise Etymological Dictionary' (Oxford: Clarendon Press) to a thorough revision. The advance in lexicographical science since 1882, when the book first appeared, has been enormous, as well as the multiplication of available materials in the way of texts and linguistic monographs. Mr. Skeat has been in the thick of the fight himself, and no small part of the winnings rightfully belongs to him. It is with much satisfaction, therefore, that we observe that the present edition is not a mere reprint with "additions and corrections," but a new book, rewritten from beginning to end, and arranged in a more practical and convenient way. We have no space for criticism, which, indeed, would necessarily be concerned with unessential details. The 'Concise Dictionary' in its present form is indispensable to all who feel any interest in the history of the English language.

From the same indefatigible pen we have a handsome volume of 'Notes on English Etymology, chiefly reprinted from the Transactions of the Philological Society.' This is of great interest to the student of English, who will bless the Clarendon Press for enabling Professor Skeat to bring together so many of his scattered contributions to philological knowledge. There are some three hundred pages of "Notes," alphabetically arranged, with reference to the places in which they originally appeared. The words discussed illustrate every hole and corner of our language. The observations upon them are full of ingenuity and curious learning. Besides these "Notes," the book contains Mr. Skeat's important "List of English Words Found in Anglo-French," and a number of other papers. The "Introduction" is partly autobiographical, and a fine portrait of the author serves as frontispiece.

Dr. A. C. Bradley's 'Commentary on Tennyson's *In Memoriam*' (Macmillan) puts the possessor of it under the necessity of procuring the text of the poem and then numbering the lines. This done, the meanest intelligence will hardly complain of a lack of assistance—certainly not of a willingness to assist—on the commentator's part. Dr. Bradley is not an indiscriminate admirer; in his elucidation he will, on occasion, make free with Tennyson's pointing. He concludes with a complete list of changes between the first and the accepted text, and dates them where he can. They are fifty-three in number, and certainly not excessive.

Librarians take great pains to avoid greater, and hence it has been thought worth while to meet "the demand of study clubs, teachers, and children" by an 'Index to *St. Nicholas* (namely, to the first twenty-seven volumes). This labor has been undertaken by Harriet Goss and Gertrude A. Baker, editors of the 'Cumulative Index to Select List of Periodicals,' and the publishers are the Cumulative Index Company of Cleveland, O. The 234 small-quarto pages might have been reduced by compressions, which were probably rendered uneconomic by the use of the linotype. For example, the puzzles being indexed, there are four entries for "Geographical primal acrostic," instead of one with four numerical references. This is really not a defect, but a liberality. Authors, subjects, and classes are duly arranged, with extensive cross-references; and "all illustrations considered of permanent value have been indexed." The work must prove of great utility to heads of the now almost indispensable "children's rooms" in our libraries and to school-teachers.

Mr. William Jaggard's 'Index to the First Ten Volumes of Book-Prices Current (1887 to 1896)' has just been issued by Elliot Stock, London. The compiler saw clearly the desideratum, but the labor had to be realized, and he asks a considerate judgment of his handling of "thirty-three thousand distinct titles and considerably over half-a-million numerals." He will have it, with the abundant thanks of every book collector. The kernel of this exhibit of the prices paid for notable books during a decade is the careful distinguishing of editions, so that one is not sent on a wild-goose chase through the entire series to find, say, the 1775 edition of Butler's 'Hudibras.' One sees, too, at a glance which editions oftenest or most seldom turn up in sales. The Bible presents the finest example of the value of the Index in the chronological aspect, but the books by or associated with Dickens, filling five and a half pages, are as instructively displayed. Incidentally, pseudonyms and anonyms are revealed. In short, this work cannot be too highly praised.

M. D. Jordell continues his valuable 'Répertoire Bibliographique des Principales Revues Françaises' with a volume for 1899 (Paris: Lamm; New York: Lemcke & Buechner), in the customary two divisions of subject and author—the latter forming a most desirable list of contemporary writers. Under the heading War (*Guerre*), with its abundant cross-references, one remarks how that of 1870-71 cedes, in the number of periodical articles here catalogued, to the Spanish-American war, while Wars of Napoleon I. and Wars of the First Republic have claimed more attention than both the others combined, to say nothing of the rubric Napoleon I. In the next issue the

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Transvaal war will certainly be more copiously treated than in the present, though it already rivals our own war with Spain. The United States claims a column, or half a page. The Dreyfus affair fills half a column. Noteworthy is the display of articles on Literature for the respective countries—American, Ancient, English, Arabic, Armenian, etc., with a column for French. "Poésies" are not overlooked; indeed, they occupy three columns, and which of the writers is *the* French poet of to-day? "Romans" fill nearly four pages—many by non-French novelists. The value of the mere list of periodicals "répertoriées" is obvious. In all respects this French "Poole" is highly to be praised and prized. It now reaches its third volume.

The Rev. Eugène Roulin, chaplain of the ex-Empress Eugénie, has published a handsome monograph on the Treasure of the ancient monastery of Silos, in Spain ('L'Ancien Trésor de l'Abbaye de Silos,' Paris: E. Leroux). The book is composed of a number of essays, which he has previously published in various archæological periodicals, with additional chapters now appearing for the first time. It contains a careful description, accompanied by excellent illustrations, of each of the more important objects in the Treasure that have survived the vicissitudes through which the monastery passed in the nineteenth century, and are now preserved either there or in the museum of Burgos. The most remarkable of these are an elaborately carved Arabic casket of the eleventh century, a silver chalice of the twelfth; a silver-gilt paten of the thirteenth, its rim decorated with a fine filigree and set with gems; and several splendid specimens of Limoges enamel of the twelfth and thirteenth centuries. To students of the history of the industrial arts the objects of later periods will also be interesting, though they are less extraordinary.

Some sixteen years ago Prof. George A. Smith of Glasgow published his 'Historical Geography of the Holy Land.' Students who have used that book will hail with pleasure a map of Palestine, from Beirut to the Arabah, edited by him, and prepared under the direction of J. G. Bartholomew (Edinburgh: T. & T. Clark; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons). The map, on the scale of four miles to an inch, is based primarily on the surveys of the English Palestine Exploration Fund, but utilizes in addition later surveys and researches, including the admirable work of the German Palestine Exploration Fund east of the Jordan. The method of indicating altitudes by means of block colors, instead of by contour lines, makes a clearer map for general use, when the eye has become accustomed to it. All Biblical sites which have been identified are indicated in large letters, and in addition each place has also its modern name. There are in all 3,180 names, but the map is sufficiently large (38¾x56¼ inches) to prevent confusion. There is an excellent index of both the ancient and modern names. In one corner of the large map are two small inset maps showing respectively the environs of Jerusalem and the vegetation of Palestine. The work seems to have been done with thoroughness. In the test examination which we have made, we have noticed but one small omission of a place known to us. The map, folded in book form, is a handy one for the traveller in Palestine, showing, as it does, the modern roads, railways, etc. Mounted as a wall map, it is of convenient size for class-room use.

The sixth volume of the Catalogue of the National Library in Paris has just made its appearance, beginning with the word Baade and ending with Bancroft. The arrangement is alphabetical, according to authors. Each volume is an octavo of about 1,200 pages, and as it has taken four years to issue the first six volumes, including only the letter A and part of B, at the present rate some sixty years will be consumed in finishing the Catalogue.

In Paris the first volume of Moltke's Military Correspondence has appeared in a French translation, to be followed in due time by the rest of the series. The Berlin papers comment favorably upon this fact, especially as the work is published for the benefit of French officers and military schools, and the bulk of the correspondence refers to the preparation for and the conduct of the Franco-Prussian war.

The *National Geographic Magazine* for September contains a sketch of the work of the principal German geographers from Behaim to Ratzel, and the methods of teaching geography in Germany, by Martha K. Genthe (Ph.D., Ann Arbor). She dwells justly on the broadening influence of this study, from the *Länderkunde* of the village schools to the scientific geography of the universities, and she might well have adduced as one of the material results of the attention paid to it the present commercial success of the Germans in foreign lands. Other articles are upon Siberia and the drift of floating bottles in the Pacific Ocean.

Among the articles announced for early publication in the new volume of the *Deutsche Rundschau*, beginning with the October number, are three dealing with the history and the royal family of Prussia: "The Negotiations at Tilsit in 1807: Correspondence of King Frederic William III. with Queen Louisa," by Dr. Paul Bailleu; "The Times of Frederic William IV.," by Prof. G. von Below; and "The Sister of Frederic the Great (the Margravine of Bayreuth)," by Prof. R. Fester. George Brandes will write on Hans Christian Andersen, Dr. O. Frommel on Gottfried Keller, and Hugo von Hoffmannsthal on Victor Hugo. Among the writers of fiction are still found the venerable names of Paul Heyse and Marie von Ebner-Eschenbach.

—There is now what may fairly be called a "literature" of the publishers' *quid pro quo* in the shape of generous rewards for interested puffery. Here is the latest instance that has come to our notice:

DEAR SIR: Please take notice that you being an indorsing subscriber on our books, by acknowledging this letter, as per card enclosed—without expense or obligation on your part—you are entitled to a special discount. Should you desire to become an indorsing subscriber of this new work, we will ask you to accept with our compliments, without charge, 20 ——— steel plates, in tints, for framing purposes.

Under the editorship of Mr. ———, Dr. ———, and Captain ———, we are issuing an absolutely new edition of ———'s works, in which is used as illustrations the entire series of ——— steel plates. To an art collector, these plates alone are worth the price of a set of the books. . . .

Upon receipt of the card above referred to, full particulars will be furnished you. Yours truly.

SEPTEMBER 16, 1901.

It is evident that men of letters who are solicited to collaborate in these enterprises with prefaces, introductions, etc., will have to guard their good names against such marketing of the joint product.

—Some thirteen years ago a paper was published by Mrs. Zelia Nuttall, in the *American Journal of Archæology*, on the small Mexican terracotta heads which are a prominent but generally unexplained feature of all collections of Mexican antiquities. This essay revealed a student of rare equipment in a neglected field. Since that date, Mrs. Nuttall's name has appeared at occasional intervals attached to kindred essays which have shown the same happy faculty of seizing on disregarded topics or slighted relics as subjects of original research. Now we have from her a solid volume of 602 pages, which must rank as the first serious attempt of a competent specialist in the history, languages, hieroglyphics, and relics of ancient Mexico to relate these studies to the history of the world at large and to other branches of archæology. We refer to volume ii. of the Archæological and Ethnological Papers of the Peabody Museum, Harvard University, entitled 'The Fundamental Principles of Old and New World Civilization.' The conclusions reached by this work are as follows: (1) The central feature of Mexican mythology, religion, and social organism was the observation and worship of the pole-star and of the circumpolar constellations, especially Ursa Major and Ursa Minor; (2) a comparison of Chinese beliefs and theories as to the cardinal points, the pole-star and Ursa Major leads to the inferring of a single centre of development for the mythology of China and of Mexico, the differences of detail showing that China did not borrow from Mexico, and that Mexico did not borrow from China; (3) pole-star worship was a prominent and often dominant factor throughout the ancient mythologies of the Old World; (4) the dominant features of Chinese astronomy probably reached China from the West; (5) the dominant features of Mexican astronomy probably reached ancient America from the East, by crossing the Atlantic Ocean—possibly by Phœnician voyages, possibly by later ancient voyages; (6) the symbolism of the pre-Christian (Greek) cross is identical with the symbolism of the swastika, and the forms themselves are variants of one form; (7) the (Greek) cross and the swastika of the New World are identical with the (Greek) cross and the swastika in the Old World; (8) the swastika is a picture of four equidistant positions of the Great Bear in its annual revolution around the pole. The order of arrangement in these conclusions is not that chosen by Mrs. Nuttall, but they are all expressly stated or expressly implied by her. We regret that we can do no more than present them, without entering into the debate which is sure to arise over them among scholars.

—Apart from two or three essays of little moment, Mr. Andrew Lang's 'Magic and Religion' is an uncommonly spirited attack on Mr. Frazer's 'Golden Bough,' which has recently appeared in an enlarged edition. Readers of Mr. Lang's 'Making of Religion' will readily understand his opposition to Mr. Frazer. It is fundamental; there is no possibility of reconciliation so far as the main point of either system is concerned.

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But Mr. Lang does not confine his critique to the central difference between his own genesis of religion and Mr. Frazer's. He carries his argument from one hypothesis in 'The Golden Bough' to another, follows the minutest ramification of Mr. Frazer's reasoning, and, in his own opinion, leaves nothing of the huge work but its erudition, ingenuity, and eloquence. Of course, the case is actually not so bad as this. 'The Golden Bough' is in reality a long series of monographs, each valuable in itself, combined into a great unit by means of an amazingly subtle web of conjectures. The web may be torn to pieces without much affecting those qualities for which scholars value the work. As for Mr. Lang's critique, it is worth reading for itself, and there can be no question that it considerably damages Mr. Frazer's hypothetical structure. It is not of uniform merit, however. The interval between Mr. Lang at his best and Mr. Lang at his worst is well known to be no small space, and best and worst are both exemplified here. There is repetition without mercy, much hair-splitting, and no end of glorification in the setting of pretty logical traps—some of them mere springes to catch woodcocks. Yet every purchaser of 'The Golden Bough' must buy 'Magic and Religion,' too, and set all four volumes together on his library shelves.

—The return to North Sydney, C. B., of the *Erik*, the vessel of the Peary Auxiliary Expedition of 1901, brings intelligence of a further abortive effort to reach the pole, albeit accompanied by the record of another brilliant exploration in the far North. With indomitable energy Mr. Peary, on April 15 of last year, set out on his third great journey northward, and, before the middle of the following month, had the satisfaction of reaching the high latitude of 83° 50′ N., the point nearest to the pole that had thus far been reached in the western hemisphere, although falling short by 2° 14′ of the highest point reached by Nansen (86° 4′, as now determined by Geelmuyden), and 2° 43′ of the "highest north" attained by Capt. Cagni, the leader of the advance party of the Duke of Abruzzi's expedition. The route followed by Mr. Peary was very nearly that of Lockwood and Brainard (1882), whose cairn was found and opened, when new memorials of exploration were deposited in it. Beyond Cape Washington, the furthest point of land observed by Lockwood, the trend of the coast was found to be eastward, with its most northerly projection in latitude 83° 39′ N. Beyond this point the "palæocrystic sea," a broken, hummocky arctic pack of unstable condition, opened up in the direction of the pole, over which extended progress was made practically impossible. Eastward of the Cape the survey of the coast-line was continued practically to Navy Cliff, which Mr. Peary first reached in his memorable "white journey" of 1892. Thus, while failing to reach the pole, the great merit belongs to Mr. Peary of having determined the boundaries of the land masses lying beyond Greenland, and of having fixed the position or limit of what is seemingly the most northern piece of land on the globe—an achievement which has been characterized by Sir Clements Markham, President of the Royal Geographical Society of London, as second only in importance to the attainment of the pole itself. Mr. Peary remains in the North another year, and will make a final effort to attain the object of his search, starting, if the information that is now brought down is correct, from Cape Hecla—the so-called American route being considered impracticable.

—The Vienna *Tageblatt* of August 20, on the occasion of a seventieth birthday celebration, publishes a five-page article on Prof. Eduard Suess, President of the Imperial Academy of Sciences of Vienna, who in this country is known principally as a geologist of marked eminence, but in Austria as perhaps the most broadly cultured person of the empire—a man of affairs, the leader of school reform, an orator of the Reichsrath of rare eloquence and persuasive power, and the avowed champion of liberalism and progress. To him more than to any one else the Austrian capital, which, up to 1873, in common with most of the capitals of Europe, shared the burden of a polluted and dangerous water-supply, is indebted for the construction of that vast system of waterways which unites it with the outliers of the Alps, and gives it a potable water in purity probably unsurpassed by that now furnished to any of the larger cities of the world, and equalled only by that of Rome. The work by which Professor Suess is most broadly known in this country, and which will do honor to his name long after the present generation of geologists has disappeared, is the 'Antlitz der Erde,' a masterful exposition or attempt at explanation of the dominant features of the earth's surface, in their relation to one another, and as coördinated with the geological conditions not of one region alone, but of the world at large. However much geologists may hesitate to accept some of the views here formulated, it will generally be conceded that in no other work aiming to explain the obscure problems to which this inquiry leads are the avenues of thought and analysis so clearly marked out as in this one, and in none other does the geologist meet with a comparable array of facts. Two of its fundamental concepts, which stand in a measure, or even largely, opposed to the generally accepted Lyellian teachings, are: the tendency of the earth's crust (or mass) to subside, through successive breakages, in the direction of the planetary centre, and the instability, as expressed by alternating recessions and transgressions of the oceanic waters, of the oceanic level (or mass). As indicating the esteem in which Professor Suess's labors are held in the country where geology first became an exact science, may be cited the expression contained in the congratulatory dispatch of the Geological Society of London: "Universally regarded here as the greatest living geologist." It is interesting to note that, in a recent interview, Professor Suess expressed the opinion that the future great powers or forces of the world would be China, Russia, and America.

LISZT'S LETTERS TO TWO WOMEN.

Franz Liszt's Briefe an die Fürstin Sayn-Wittgenstein. 2 vols. Leipzig: Breitkopf & Härtel.

Franz Liszt's Briefe an eine Freundin. Leipzig: Breitkopf & Härtel.

Liszt's importance as a composer is being more and more cordially recognized every year. In German concert-halls, he is now exceeded in popularity, measured by the number of performances, only by Beethoven and Wagner. At least half a century more, however, must elapse before his deepest and most inspired works will become as familiar to amateurs and professionals as they deserve to be. In the meantime, it is to be hoped that more attention will also be bestowed on his literary works. There are six volumes of these, only one of which (his 'Chopin') has been translated into English. His volume on Wagner contains the essays on the "Flying Dutchman," "Tannhäuser," and "Lohengrin," which advanced the vogue of these operas by a decade, and which have never been equalled by other commentaries in keenness of insight and poetic eloquence. A strangely fascinating and illuminating book also is his monograph on the gypsies and their music and his own Hungarian rhapsodies. The other three volumes contain essays on diverse musical topics—operas, composers, singers, programme-music, criticism, etc. If professional musicians and critics could be induced to read and digest these essays, there would be a wonderful clearing of the musical atmosphere.

Besides the literary works proper, Breitkopf & Härtel have been issuing in book form the letters of Liszt to various contemporaries, and their replies. Of these replies, only two volumes have been printed so far, while Liszt's own letters fill five complete volumes and their share of the three volumes containing his correspondence with Wagner and Hans von Bülow. Possibly "La Mara," the editor, has the material for further volumes. Liszt's letters to Mr. Joseffy, for example, have not yet been printed.

No fewer than 452 of Liszt's letters were addressed to the Princess Sayn-Wittgenstein, one of the most remarkable women of her time. Humboldt referred to her as "die vielbegeistigte Fürstin," and Liszt's admiration for her knew no bounds, though she lacked personal beauty and certain other feminine charms. Her father, a very wealthy Polish nobleman, had brought her up (he was divorced from his wife) like a boy, teaching her to assist him in his scientific and agricultural studies, and often making her stay up so late at night that, in order to keep awake, she acquired the baneful habit of smoking strong cigars. By way of atonement for these peculiarities, she had the feminine quality of sympathy unusually developed; and this it was, no doubt, combined with her alert intellect, that attracted the great musician. Up to the time when she first met Liszt, her life had not been a happy one. Yielding to her father's wishes and command, she had, at the age of seventeen, married a son of the Russian Field Marshal, Prince Wittgenstein. He was mentally her inferior, and she felt an antipathy toward him which led her to refuse him three times before she finally consented. The result of this *mariage de convenance* was that, after a decade of unhappiness, she left him and followed Liszt to Weimar, after sending an application for divorce to the Russian authorities. She took up her residence in one wing of the Altenburg, and Liszt in the other. Here she had abundant opportunity to gratify her intellectual ambitions. She became

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Liszt's confidential adviser, secretary, and assistant in every possible way, during a period of thirteen years—the period in which he composed his symphonic poems and many others of his greatest works. She wrote letters for him, kept away forbidden guests, helped to entertain welcome visitors—including most of the eminent musicians of the time; and while she could not aid him in his compositions, she did give him the benefit of her knowledge and experience in the sketches of Polish life in his 'Chopin,' and in others of his literary works. The suggestion for and first sketch of his oratorio "St. Elizabeth" were made by her, and it was she, too, who put the idea into Berlioz's head of writing a Trojan opera, the score of which he gratefully dedicated to her.

Prince Wittgenstein, being a Protestant, had no difficulty in securing a divorce from the wife who had deserted him, and marrying another woman; while she, as a Catholic, struggled in vain for years to secure permission to marry Liszt. In 1860 she went to Rome in order to accelerate matters, and succeeded finally in getting the Pope's consent. The wedding-day was fixed, the altar already adorned, when the enemies of the Princess obtained an order from the Pope to reconsider the whole matter. This broke her spirit, and from that day a sort of superstitious dread made her give up the idea of marrying Liszt, though the death of Prince Wittgenstein, in 1864, set her free to do as she chose, and Cardinal Hohenlohe offered to perform the ceremony in his own chapel. Her mind had in the meantime been diverted from art to religion, and it was largely due to her influence that Liszt became an abbé and devoted the last period of his life chiefly to ecclesiastic composition. As for the Princess herself, she gave up most of her time to literary labors, which culminated in a work entitled 'Des Causes Intérieures de la Faiblesse Extérieure de l'Église,' in twenty-four volumes! The last pages were written a few days before her death in 1887, but she left directions that "the work" should not be printed till twenty-five years after her death. She might have done the world a greater service by writing her reminiscences of Liszt and her innumerable conversations with him.

To this Princess, Liszt opened his heart more freely than to any other correspondent except, occasionally, Wagner; yet there are fewer revelations of his personality than one might have expected in the 747 pages of these letters. With his usual willingness to sacrifice himself for others, he writes a great deal about topics which must have interested the Princess much more than himself. He even keeps her supplied, at her request, with political views and gossip, although he had told her in one of his first letters that he had "always detested politics." While he was a man of wide sympathies, music remained to the end of his life his great passion. During the last forty years, however, it was no longer interpretation but creation; and this gradually became an actual necessity to him:

"I feel as if I were starved (*desséché*) if I pass a few days without music paper. My brain gets dull, and I become incapable of taking an interest in external matters. I have often observed this fact, and the malady increases with my years. Music is the breath of my soul—it becomes at once my prayer and my work."

There are a few references to special compositions he happened to be engaged on, but not as many as one could wish; and always he speaks of them with unaffected modesty, as in this reference to one class of his creations, which has so far been entirely withheld from the concert-going public:

"I have done some tolerable work these last weeks. To-morrow I shall send to Leipzig twelve part-songs for male voices which form, as it were, an indispensable supplement to my *Lieder*. . . . If I am not mistaken, some of these *Männerchor-Gesänge* might meet with some little success."

In another letter he says:

"In everything I compose I believe I have something sufficiently new to say. It is therefore necessary to assimilate my thought and my feelings lest they be betrayed by a ruinous performance. Carlsruhe has been a most useful lesson to me in this respect, and I shall try to profit by it. Though to a less degree than Wagner, I, nevertheless, need real men and artists, and cannot content myself with *manœuvres* and a mechanically regular execution."

To the end of his life Liszt retained something of the gypsy lawlessness by which he came naturally through his Hungarian nativity and early associations. "After the theatre," he writes to the Princess, "I ran over to the gypsies, as I did last night. You know what special charm this music has for me. . . . It might be defined with tolerable accuracy as *half gypsy, half Franciscan*." It was this peculiar mixture—with some other rare ingredients—that made Liszt so dear to the unprejudiced public, and so offensive to the straight-laced professionals, of whose extraordinary silliness an amusing instance is referred to in volume one (p. 349). Rietz (conductor of the Gewandhaus concerts at Leipzig) left the hall during the performance of a Liszt concerto because the triangle was used in it!—which reminds one of the pedant who censured Saint-Saëns for introducing trombones in a symphony, and when Saint-Saëns timidly suggested that Beethoven had made good use of them in some of his symphonies, Girard replied: "Perhaps it would have been better if he hadn't."

Although Liszt was perhaps freer from vanity than any other artist of his rank that ever lived, he was pained as well as puzzled by the extraordinary divergence between the public's judgment of him and that of the critics. In one of the most interesting of his letters, dated December 12, 1855, he expresses his surprise that, after the deep impression made by his compositions on the Berlin public, and the great honors rendered him, the critics of all the journals should have lashed him so mercilessly. "Our dear friend Hans [von Bülow] was so indignant that he wept." Liszt knew all the critics by name, and he heard that one of the editors had written to Stern that, "out of consideration for him," he would not allow any notice of Liszt's concert to be printed in his journal! Liszt was prepared in part for his reception by Alexander von Humboldt, who, he writes, in conversation with him, deplored "la rage de critique et de dépréciation, qui est la maladie toujours régnante de cette capitale de l'intelligence germanique"—a "critical disease," by the way, which, though lashed by Heine, has not abated in the least. To take a modern instance: the Berliners are not aware to this day that Paderewski is the greatest living pianist, though all the rest of the world has known it for years.

As regards vanity in general, so free from it was Liszt that he never made use of the *de* or *von* before his name, to which he was entitled, as his family was of noble descent. He did, however, secure this *Prädikat* for his uncle, who thenceforth called himself Eduard Ritter von Liszt. Only once did Liszt seemingly depart from his principles—when he wanted to become a corresponding member of the French Institute in view of his position as a composer; but even here he declares that he will remain perfectly calm whether the honor is bestowed or refused; and he adds that "la véritable modestie ne consiste pas dans l'ignorance, ou la dissimulation de sa capacité; mais elle est simplement la pudeur morale de soi." His account (II., 183-4) of the conversation he had with the old fogy Halévy on this occasion regarding his attitude toward Wagner is amusing. In the letters describing his visits to Paris, Liszt has many interesting things to say about poor Berlioz, who "has neither friends nor partisans—neither the great sun of the public, nor the sweet shade of intimacy," and other famous men. One day Halévy, Auber, Berlioz, Gounod, Théophile Gautier, and other notabilities sat at table with him. He also describes his visits to Rossini, with a humorous touch: "His musical diversion consists in writing sonatas for the piano, to which he gives alimentary titles: Fresh Butter, Green Peas, Cherries, or Apricots, and I know not what else. I shall read them to-morrow, after having dined with him." The cosmopolitan Liszt was a sincere admirer of Rossini when at his best, and he was a much more practical man than Wagner; but when he sent Rossini (as he relates) a copy of his "Dante" symphony, he made as ludicrous a mistake as Wagner did when he composed his "Tristan und Isolde" for an Italian opera company in Brazil. Rossini thanked him for the score of the symphony in a letter "charmante et d'une flatterie délicate"; but he significantly signed himself a "mélodiste italien pur sang," and Liszt could not help reading between the lines that Rossini "did not find himself in his natural element in *reading* my episode of Francesca da Rimini, which, perhaps, touches a more elevated region of the soul. However," he concludes, "I fancy that if he could hear a performance of it he would quickly, with the marvellous insight peculiar to his genius, seize my meaning."

For the obtuseness of musicians in general in relation to his original works Liszt found atonement in the appreciation of Wagner. "The sympathy and interest which Wagner manifests in relation to my symphonic works has been a great joy to me," he writes to a friend under date of January 30, 1857; and when Wagner's essay on his symphonic poems appeared, he asked the Princess to send him copies to be placed where they might do good. There are of course numerous references to Wagner in the letters to the Princess, and two are of exceptional interest. Liszt seldom indulges in elaborate descriptions, but in one of these letters, of the year 1853 (I., 140), he draws a portrait of Wagner, physical and mental, which has never been equalled. It is too long to quote entire, but a few lines of it may be translated here:

"Wagner awaited me at the landing, and we

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almost smothered each other with embraces. At times there is something in his voice like the cry of an eagle. He wept and laughed and stormed for joy at seeing me again, for at least a quarter of an hour. . . . He looks well, but has grown rather thinner during the last four years. His features, particularly his nose and mouth, have taken on a remarkable finesse and nervous accentuation. . . . As for myself, he loves me with all his heart and soul, and when the conversation touches on his reputation and popularity, he exclaims, 'See what you have made of me!' twenty times a day. He throws himself on my neck and the next moment rolls on the floor, petting his dog Peps and talking nonsense to him—abusing the Jews, a term which has a generic meaning for him, of a very wide application; in a word, *une grande et grandissime nature*, —something like a Vesuvius shooting out flames and fire mingled with roses and lilacs."

The other passage referred to (I., 143, 145) illustrates the combined hospitality and penchant for luxury which helped to keep Wagner poor the greater part of his life:

"Wagner told me that he would have a place reserved for me at his table from morning to night as long as I was here. I feel some scruples in regard to the expense I give him, for there are always a dozen persons to dine with him at one and to sup with him at 9:30. . . . . The Ritter family gives him a regular subvention of more than 1,000 thalers a year—and the footing on which he lives appears to me to demand double, if not three times, that sum. His cellar, as Hermann tells me, is well filled, and he has a pronounced taste for luxury and elegant habits."

All of Liszt's letters to the Princess are in French. The only thing German about these two volumes is the title, the introduction, and the explanatory foot-notes. The same is true of the 'Briefe an eine Freundin.' Who this friend was is not explained, either in the letters themselves or in the preface. She was, the editor, "La Mara" (Marie Lipsius), simply informs us, a pupil of Liszt's at Weimar, after 1853, and intended to make her living by teaching the piano, but afterwards took up journalism. Liszt praised her as a musician, and how much he esteemed her as a friend is obvious from this, that his correspondence with her covers a period of 31 years, ending only a few weeks before his death. There are 133 letters, and in them he tells us more, proportionately, about himself than in the correspondence with the Princess. Those who know of Liszt only as the world's pet pianist, will be surprised at the melancholy tone of many of these letters. His friend's life was an unhappy one, and he goes so far as to endorse her words, "Life is but a long and bitter suicide"; or, as he puts it in another place: "Notre vie n'est qu'une gamme indéfinie de soupirs et de pleurs"; and once he goes so far as to declare that he envies his coachman, who sits philosophically on his seat, ignorant of the *tristesse* and *ennuis* of life and of intercourse with stupid people. He declares, too, that he has become "very tired of teaching that which in truth cannot be learned—which is precisely what is most important in music. I am therefore deaf to the young pianists of both sexes who come to me in droves, and for the moment have reduced my little band to four or five." But he was too good-natured to abide by this decision; for these words were written in 1859, and he continued to instruct and inspire shoals of young pianists for another quarter of a century.

Not all of these letters are so melancholy and depressing. They are in all moods, and contain many interesting observations on Rubinstein, Spohr, Schumann, Joachim, Wagner, Verdi, and others, as well as on his own works and their interpretation. We read how he wept on playing Wagner's music with its composer; what infinite pains he took in revising his own compositions; what a difference it made in the reception of these pieces whether he himself or others interpreted them; how furious Berlioz was at the habitual misinterpretation of his own music, etc. It is odd to find that while his career as pianist made Liszt fly from city to city, he was not a tourist in the modern sense of the word; for he tells us that he lived in Rome seven years without visiting Naples. We also get glimpses of his family—his mother, his son Daniel, who died young; and his two daughters. For a time he was rather disturbed by the refusal of these daughters to take husbands, though plenty offered themselves. "They seem to want a Beethoven or a Raphael." Cosima married Wagner, and Blandine married the French statesman of the "cœur léger," Émile Ollivier.

CURRENCY AND BANKING IN THE MASSACHUSETTS BAY PROVINCE.

Currency and Banking in the Province of the Massachusetts Bay. By Andrew McFarland Davis. Part I., Currency. American Economic Association.

The history of paper money is a history of disaster, and yet is never the same at different times and in different places. The general course of events from the inception to the redemption or repudiation may be uniform, for there are laws governing the use of credit, and the consequences of abuse are inevitable; but the details are novel, interesting, and illuminative of social activity. Attempts have been made to frame a full account of the many effects of an over-issue of an irredeemable paper currency, and the economist is familiar with the important stages in the enforced use of a credit currency during the American and French Revolutions, during our civil war, and in England during the contest with Napoleon. Mr. Davis has taken for his subject the colonial paper money of Massachusetts, and tells the story with a fulness of detail and grasp of subject that leave little to be desired. For nearly ten years he has been accumulating his material, and the results justify his patience and skill. Not only has he freely utilized the labors of other historians, but he has found in manuscript sources much that is new and valuable. If he writes as an historian rather than as an economist, his work loses little, for the facts give a more vivid picture of the half-century of experiment in paper issues than could be obtained by other means. Although no English colony on the American continent escaped a resort to bills of credit, none can show so full and careful a history as Mr. Davis has given of the experience of Massachusetts. The reproduction of the different forms of notes of which examples have been found is valuable, and suggests many peculiar questions as to engraving and signing, as well as illustrating the ingenuity of the dishonest in "raising" the denominations—attempts which have been instrumental in preserving specimens as part of the court records.

In the very early days of the colony, barter was the rule, and the taxes were paid in produce and commodities. With little foreign trade, coin was obtained with difficulty, and, before 1652, paper bills, probably based upon private credit, were used to make good the want of specie. The basis for such notes would naturally be studied, and a "fund of land" was under discussion before 1681, perhaps as early as 1649. No definite step was taken until the colony found itself deeply involved in debt through the failure of the Canadian expedition in 1690. The colony, on the plea of necessity and want of time, issued certificates which were receivable for public dues and were in fact anticipations of taxes, to be destroyed when paid into the treasury or redeemed out of the produce of the tax-levy. The notes were thus issued as a means of paying the creditors of the colony, and were not clothed with a legal-tender quality as regards private debts. The fact that they were receivable for public dues and were to be called in gradually by taxes, gave them the credit they required to circulate from hand to hand. The public distrusted the experiment, and, as new issues were ordered, accepted the notes at a discount. The Government promised to receive them at a premium of 5 per cent., but could not modify this distrust. Until the charter came into effect the stability of the Government itself was not beyond question, and its pledges were under suspicion because of this political feature.

So ready a means of payment served upon subsequent occasions when the administration was called upon to meet heavy expenditures, and the "great service and benefit" derived from the bills of credit formed a strong argument in their favor. If the Assembly accompanied the issue with a pledge of an early redemption and enforced tax laws adequate to this purpose, the danger of depreciation was not great. In this essential precaution, however, lay the insidious temptation to avoid doing what is always unpopular, that is, to impose taxation to call into the treasury for destruction the bills that constituted the circulation of the colony. In creating the debt, they represented that the Government had "performed a public service"; but when it came to be a question of paying that debt, which could be done only through sacrifice, a powerful opinion was created not only in favor of leaving the bills in circulation, but of increasing their quantity. The paper had driven the few coins available out of circulation, and the complaint of a "scarcity of cash" (a complaint as old as barter itself) was erected into a political opinion, coloring the legislative proceedings as long as any of the bills remained outstanding. The royal governors, until Shirley's time, were upon the side of meeting in full the requirements of the original terms of the issues, and their urgent and incessant recommendations to the House of Representatives were at once honorable and instructive. As the popular branch, the House was most guilty in its refusal to redeem the promises which had given to the bills their circulation.

Very early in the proceedings the Representatives voted to postpone the retirement of the bills as provided for by annual instalments. Not only was this a violation of public faith, but it gave to the advocates of paper money their most effective argu-

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ment. If the existing issues, they argued, have proved of such public benefit as to make their continuance advisable in the face of the solemn pledges of redemption at a fixed period, why should not further issues be expedient and produce further public advantage? It was only natural that the prospect of more paper money attracted the support of all who owed money, or had borrowed and misapplied the capital, and were now feeling the pressure of their debts. The opportunity of deriving some direct benefit from a new issue was offered by the adoption of the land-bank scheme, in which the Government were to issue bills of credit and to lend them to the inhabitants of the province on real estate; a provision being made for the gradual repayment of the loan. No restrictions imposed by the laws, no regulations of the Executive, could prevent the abuses which followed. In refusing to redeem its promises and in issuing loans for debtors, the Assembly deliberately invited a distribution of favors which could reach only those who were most deeply involved in debt and had the least ability to meet their obligations. A bribe so generously offered to those in difficulties could but react in sapping the morality of the bribe-giver, and provincial politics were brought to a correspondingly low point. Even the appointment of Governor was infected with the taint, when, in 1715, Burgess sold his commission to make room for Shute, a transaction which Mr. Davis rightly terms "extraordinary," but one that was justified by the fact that through such means alone could the Boston capitalists contributing the fund for this sale attain their end.

The situation now became a contest between the House and the Governor over the issue of more bills. The representative body was ever seeing a necessity for larger sums of money, and, by its refusal to maintain the credit of what was in circulation, tending to create that necessity. It is probable that the province would have been flooded with paper at a very early period if the House had carried out its intentions. To give a medium of circulation, to avoid the necessity of laying taxes, and to obtain a revenue for the Government through the interest on the loans, were advantages apparent to all. The deeper significance of the issues could come only through experience, and fortunately one of the first experiments converted the Governor to a "specie man." His influence and authority could not have stemmed the popular tide in favor of paper had not the weight of the Crown and Parliament been on the same side. The rapid depreciation of the bills made remittances to England difficult, and aroused the merchants there to protest against the manner in which their debts were settled. A definite instruction was sent to the Governor, practically prohibiting the issue of bills without the approval of the Crown. From this time and until Shirley became Governor, the Governor was at odds with the House. He was generally anxious to destroy the outstanding bills as they were received into the Treasury under the tax laws, while the House was fertile in projects for paying the old by creating new debts, for exchanging new issues against the old bills. In voting a supply of the bills of credit to be apportioned among the towns for loaning purposes, the House considered that it had done all that was necessary; the Governor, in pleading the royal instructions, believed that he had made a full and complete answer.

It would be an unnecessary task to follow this contest in detail, as the course is so fully described by Mr. Davis. The significant matter was that the degeneracy of public and private morality was so rapid under the insidious influence of paper money. Promises were freely made and as freely broken; Governors were made and unmade; the House resorted to arguments which would support any dishonesty, and to acts which were little less than criminal in their open disregard of what was right. The colony was starved for lack of appropriations, salaries were unpaid, the forts were decaying, and the small provincial army was at times forced to disband for want of subsistence. The notes depreciated, and the issues of the neighboring colonies, made upon a scale even greater than those of Massachusetts, infected all dealings with an element of gambling. Every compromise with dishonesty was costly, and only a grant of silver from Parliament saved the province from complete repudiation.

In this long experience in seeking to avoid the payment of debts, some good is to be found. The gradual resort to a full legal-tender quality, making the notes receivable in settlement of all debts, public and private, past and future, showed some conscience on the part of the Assembly. Then, too, the contest in favor of a return to specie was useful in inculcating better opinions regarding paper money, and in leading to a more correct knowledge of the nature and working of credit. After every expedient for maintaining the value of the bills had been tried and proved incompetent, the hard-money men were able effectively to urge their remedy, but at great cost to the colony, as all the monetary errors of half a century must be made good. Finally, in its contest with the Governor for legislative freedom of control, subject only to the provincial interpretation of the charter and royal instructions, the House developed a keen sense for political advantage, and established precedents of high utility at a later day, when the colony was really opposed to Parliament and the King's representatives.

A YEAR IN CHINA.

A Year in China. By Clive Bigham. The Macmillan Co.

The deadly dulness which, to Western eyes, seems to hang over all things Chinese, is decidedly relieved in this volume, which contains the lively record of a traveller and a soldier. During a year of constant activity, both as a civilian and a military man, in the service of the British Government, he saw four countries which have especially occupied the world's attention for a year past—China, Korea, Asiatic Russia, and Japan. The author, Clive Bigham, has already made his mark in the literature of travel by his books 'With the Turkish Army in Thessaly' and 'A Ride through Western Asia.' He is a man of very keen observation, apparently of great endurance, and of imperturbable good nature, and his style is crisp and crackling. One has a delightful feeling, as of innumerable mimic electric shocks, as he reads these pages so richly charged with information and suggestion. The author refrains from high questions of statecraft, strategy, and finance, modestly declining to discuss or advise the future policy of the British, or of any other Government, and omits the description of those places which have been voluminously written about.

It was early in April, 1899, when the author arrived in Hongkong, destined for the British Legation at Peking. At Kashgar he had seen the western extremity of the Chinese empire, but apart from this knew of the Middle Kingdom and its people only from books. His determination was to reach Peking by the overland route. He was under the escort of four native Government soldiers, who proved to be very useful assistants. Each one was armed with one Snider rifle, one prong, one sword, and four parasols. His journey from Canton to Hankow, covering eleven hundred miles, was made in twenty-four days, most of it being done in a small, flat-bottomed wooden craft, thirty feet long and eight feet broad. The chief feature in the landscape was the rice field, with the ploughman standing up to his knees in the fertile ooze, and driving the water-buffalo. Travelling from Hankow to Peking, the author was enabled to see how different were the people of southern and northern China, the former being as a rule better fed, more industrious and contented, and less apathetic, fanatical, and given to outbreaks. The geological and economic differences between the north and south are immense. North China, with its excess of mountains, its peculiar loess formation, its lack of roads, and from other causes not operative in the south, is to-day "isolated, decadent, underpopulated, and poverty-stricken." Southern China, being far better supplied with waterways, even though endowed with a less fertile soil, has made great strides of progress during the past century.

Mr. Bigham writes less like a European and more like the Japanese, who understand the country and people of China better than almost any foreign critics. He insists upon a radical difference between the Aryan and the Yellow races, as to both body and mind.

"What would appear truth and reason to the one, often seems folly and lies to the other. Our ideas of history, of ethics, of domestic life, and even our logic and system of reasoning, frequently run quite counter to what the Chinamen expect and believe. . . . And our victories do not by any means convince him that he is wrong and that we are right."

Our perspective of China is so frequently incorrect because we apply to the Chinese Western standards of comparisons. Nevertheless, the author believes that the Chinese "understand the iron hand much better than the velvet glove," and that, "in Asia, fear is the father of peace." The Chinese as a race, while essentially a law-abiding people, are also materialists. In their eyes life is not long enough for fighting, which after all is "a dangerous and uncivilized amusement." If not harassed or pillaged by those in authority, they accept their rule with comparative equanimity. Above all, they appreciate financial purity, for peculation has so cankered the Chinese bureaucracy that an honest official is to the ordinary citizen something almost superhuman. The author believes that the highest powers of the best civilization yet evolved upon this planet will be taxed to

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win the Chinaman's sympathy, as well as his respect for the Western man's force.

In August the author was sent on a journey across Mantchuria, with whose excellent waterways, splendid forests, and fertile soil he was very favorably impressed. The Mantchus who formerly thinly inhabited this region have practically disappeared, having either emigrated to the eighteen provinces, or been crushed out, or assimilated by the vanquished Chinese in the guise of colonists—one of the many peaceful conquests of China. Passing into eastern Siberia, he reached by means of the Russian railway the city of Vladivostok, whose commerce is not advancing quite so rapidly as is generally believed. Since the early summer of 1900 the Russian forces have increased to an army of one hundred thousand regular troops, which, with a powerful fleet, is kept ready for attacks from Japan or from other countries. At Khaborovsk is a statue of Count Muravieff, "the Cecil Rhodes of Russia."

Returning southward, the author followed for 500 miles the old land road down the eastern shore of the Korean peninsula. He passed through Kyong Song, an embattled city with walls of cyclopean masonry, but with dirty streets and tumble-down mud cottages, to the bright new treaty port of Gensan. He declares that Korea, the land of tiny horses and huge oxen, is very interesting to travel in, if only for its complete isolation from even Asiatic civilization, for the Koreans seem to have evolved nothing of consequence. In its future, though the Japanese have at present the preponderance, Russia and possibly a reformed China must be counted elements of influence. At Seoul he had an audience of the Emperor. He found the royal soldiers used bayonets of two lengths, the shorter for summer, when the people wear thin clothes, and the longer for winter, when they are swathed in thick padded garments. He then rode on the new railway to Chemulpo, which has now 22,000 inhabitants. Crossing over to Japan, he spent the month of December there. Early in 1900 going up the Yangtzse River into the great inland province of Sze-Chuan, he left the river at Chung King, going westward to Kia Ting, and thence northward into Shansi and to Sian Fu, and from this place, by the Yellow River and overland, to Tientsin and Peking. He had numerous adventures, and tells these in a bright and attractive way. He shows that a railway in western China, whether from India or from the eastern seacoast, would be a very expensive enterprise. In addition to the difficulties of engineering, much of the way lies through desolate and uninhabited regions.

Declining to discuss the history and evolution of those dynastic or anti-foreign feelings that led to the Boxer movement, and without detailing the events that precipitated its outbreak, he tells us how disappointed he was with Port Arthur. Its harbor can accommodate only four or five battle-ships with any manœuvring room; it is a very unhealthy spot, owing to the mud daily uncovered by the ebb tide; all its supplies must come from Chefoo, across the straits, and by land and sea it is easily blockaded and could thus be starved out. Reaching Tientsin in May, he saw the small bodies of troops that got into Peking and saved the situation. He took part in Admiral Seymour's hasty expedition of sailors and marines, which nobly attempted the first endeavor to raise the siege of the legations. This march and running fight he describes most vividly, in detail, and with fascination, especially the combined attack by Boxers and Imperial troops upon the column at Hsiku, and the skilful defence and retreat. His appreciative remarks and criticisms upon the soldiers of various nationalities are intelligent and judicial.

After Tientsin had been captured, and thus the first barrier on the road to Peking broken down, the author determined to travel home by way of Mantchuria. By way of Nagasaki and Vladivostok, and then by rail and river steamboat, he covered the distance of six thousand miles from the sea to Moscow. His criticisms are on the whole rather favorable to the Siberian railway management. He figures the items from London to Vladivostok at time of writing thus: distance 8,010 miles, time 26 days, first-class fare $150, or for all expenses $200.

Altogether this is a most interesting book. Its information is fresh, abundant, and at first hand, and the mental attitude of the author is that of a thoroughly sympathetic human being, and not merely of a British islander. Whether it be the missionaries, the Koreans, the Russians, or Americans, or Chinese, he sees the good points of each. While stanchly loyal to his own convictions, he points out where Englishmen as well as other Westerners can learn. Very few books in such brief compass cover the ground so accurately and entertainingly. There are four valuable colored maps, which give the present situation at a glance. The illustrations are forty in number, and are full-page and well reproduced, and there are appendices and an index.

Charles William Ferdinand, Duke of Brunswick. An Historical Study, 1735-1806. By Lord Edmond Fitzmaurice. Longmans, Green & Co. 1901.

During the five hundred years and more which have elapsed since Germany began to produce "hereditary princes," she has not often been successful in making them distinguished men. Of their mediæval ancestors, Mr. Herbert Fisher says: "Restrained by no considerations of patriotism, softened by no tincture of culture, swayed by rudimentary passions, simple, violent, and gross, they would neglect all the higher calls of citizenship to serve their greedy ends." Where there were so many petty princes, some could not fail to achieve distinction, and in the age of the Reformation we meet with a Philip of Hesse, a Maurice of Saxony, and a Bernard of Saxe-Weimar. But, after the Peace of Westphalia, particularism and dependence on France reduced the stature of the lesser German sovereigns, causing many of them to resemble the electoral dynasty of Hanover as it was at the close of the seventeenth century. We accordingly feel that sort of interest which arises from the exceptional case when we approach the career of Charles William Ferdinand, Duke of Brunswick. His standing among rulers of his own class in Germany may be judged from the fact that, when the Fürstenbund of 1786 was formed, he became without dispute its head. "'Nobody,' wrote the Duke of Gotha to the Duke of Saxe-Weimar, 'can be the head of the League except one person, the Duke of Brunswick. It would be an honor to serve under him.'"

But we are using too small a standard when we speak of the Fürstenbund and the petty princes of Germany. The Duke of Brunswick belongs in the widest sense to the history of Europe. His life is a single and unique link between the age of Frederick the Great and the age of Napoleon. He won his first fame in the Seven Years' War, and he received his death wound in the battle of Auerstädt. For above forty years he was a factor in the European situation. Even after he had signed the famous proclamation of the allies against the French Revolution, a number of leading Frenchmen talked of him seriously as a possible successor to Louis XVI. Had he chosen to become a military adventurer, his chances would have been better than those of Wallenstein or Dumourietz, and he might even have created conditions which would have rendered the appearance of Napoleon impossible. His real eminence gave him a brilliant opportunity to which he proved unequal. Still, at the lowest estimate, he is a fit subject for the essay which Lord Edmond Fitzmaurice, after publishing it in two numbers of the *Edinburgh Review*, has now converted into a book.

The Duke of Brunswick was a Prussian commander-in-chief, and also the ruler of his own patrimony. In both capacities he enjoyed such great fame at the critical period of his life (namely, when the French Revolution began) that his biographer must find it hard to distinguish between their relative importance. Before 1789 he had been uniformly successful, whether serving under his uncles, Duke Ferdinand of Brunswick-Lüneburg and Frederick the Great, or with an independent command, as during the brief war of the Bavarian Succession which was ended by the Peace of Teschen in 1779. He had been the favorite nephew of Frederick the Great, who devoted a long ode to his praise, and said that "nature destined him to be a hero." At home he put aside the thought of military ambition altogether, and reformed the administration of his duchy. He was not merely a type of the general turned benevolent despot, like Frederick of Montefeltro at Urbino; he was a philosopher whose views of the world and of mankind had been colored by the French ideas so prevalent at Berlin. Mirabeau, then a secret envoy of Calonne, saw him in the summer of 1786 and wrote:

"The Duke will certainly not be thought a common man even among men of merit. His person bespeaks depth and penetration and a desire to please, tempered by fortitude—nay, by sternness. He is prodigiously laborious, well informed, and perspicuous. However able his first Minister, Féronce, may be, the Duke superintends all affairs and generally decides for himself. His correspondence is immense, and this he can owe only to his personal reputation, because he cannot be sufficiently wealthy to keep so many correspondents in pay."

While Lord Fitzmaurice places a high value upon Brunswick's gifts and attainments, his book may be called pathological in tone. With a great deal of sympathy he examines the causes of the Duke's failure to accomplish towards the close of his life what had been hoped for at the outset. Accordingly, he pays much more attention to the last fifteen years than to the fifty-five which precede the meeting of Leopold and Frederick William at Pilnitz. How Brunswick's reputation stood on the eve of the campaign which led to Valmy, may be

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gathered from the words of the journalist Carra: "C'est le plus grand guerrier et le plus grand politique de l'Europe que le duc de Brunswick; il est très instruit, très aimable; il ne lui manque peut-être qu'une couronne, je ne dis pas pour être le plus grand roi de la terre, mais pour être le véritable restaurateur de la liberté de l'Europe." He disliked and despised the *émigrés*. As a ruler, he had shown himself a liberal. He was thought to be a better general than Lafayette, Rochambeau, or Luckner. And so the Narbonne ministry, acting through François de Custine, offered him the leadership of the French forces in the great war with Austria and Prussia. One cannot say that he made his fatal mistake when he declined this invitation, for he would have deserted his principles by accepting it. But his misfortunes began on the day when he assumed the Prussian command against France, under the pressure of loyalty to the heir of Frederick the Great and despite his better judgment. He did not write the celebrated manifesto which bears his name and is so dreadfully associated with the September massacres; he issued it with the utmost reluctance, and never ceased to regret that he had countenanced it in any way. Long afterwards he said to Massenbach: "That unlucky manifesto! I shall repent it to the last day of my life. What would I not give never to have signed it!"

An episode of the kind brings us to the reasons with which Lord Fitzmaurice accounts for Brunswick's failure to succeed amid the stormy politics of the Revolution. He possessed enough discernment, but he was lacking in will power. Though the *émigrés* thought Paris an easy prize, he was deceived by no illusions. He saw the potential strength of France, and the absence of any true advantage which Germany could gain through war. He saw clearly, yet was led into trouble by fools, because he had not the faculty of holding fast to his opinions.

"When the decisive moment arrived which Mirabeau had indicated must sooner or later come, when the Duke would have to decide if he would act with authority or not, it was proved that the early suspicions of Gaudi and Westphalen were true, and that, while Nature had granted him every faculty of the intellect with an unstinted hand, circumstances, if not Nature herself, had deprived him of the equally necessary quality of moral determination."

Hardenberg put the issue more tersely when he complained that the Duke would neither say "yes" nor "no." It is a sad verdict to pass on a man of Brunswick's talents and honor, but both in statecraft and in war his acts were marked by a caution which can hardly be traced to anything else than radical indecision of character.

In a few words of preface the author accounts for the publication of these two papers on Brunswick as a book. "Lord Rosebery and Sir George Trevelyan having intimated to me their opinion that these articles might be of use to the historical student if they received a more permanent shape, the present volume appears in consequence." It is an admirable essay, and one which does more than compass the aim so modestly expressed. It is not only useful but attractive.

En Méditerranée: Promenades d'histoire et d'art. Par Charles Diehl. Paris: A. Colin. 1901. Pp. 286, 16mo.

The first of the excursions of M. Diehl, in whom the reader will find an enthusiastic and scholarly companion, is, following in the footsteps of the historian Freeman, in 'Subject and Neighbor Lands of Venice,' through the ruins of the fortress-palace of Diocletian at Spalato on the eastern shore of the Adriatic. His description of this vast group of buildings, this "fragment of petrified history," revives the splendors of an expiring civilization. The main point of interest here, after the historical associations, is the architecture, in which are to be seen the first indications of the transition from the Roman to the Byzantine and Christian orders. At the neighboring city of Salona his attention is directed chiefly to the cemeteries, whose numerous inscriptions throw much valuable light on the origins of Latin Christianity. The other Dalmatian ports, Zara and Ragusa, serve only to awaken patriotic reminiscences of the French occupation in 1805. Our traveller recounts at length and with evident satisfaction the manifestations of attachment to France, as the "ally of the great Slav race," on the part of the people, the great majority of whom are Serbo-Croats, and full of Slavic aspirations. When in Bosnia-Herzegovina, also, he loses sight of the past, and confines himself to giving his impressions of its present condition. The great material progress of these provinces since they were freed from Turkish rule he frankly acknowledges, but he is inclined to believe that only superficial results have been obtained. A hint is dropped that the Austrians have been more successful in impressing tourists with what they have accomplished than in conciliating the mass of the people, who are poor and burdened with heavy taxes. Apparently he shares in the conviction of some Austrians even that "this much vaunted work will vanish into smoke on the day in which it ceases to be supported by 40,000 bayonets."

Our author is at his best in his description of Delphi when it was the centre of Greek art and religion—and, we may add, liberty. For "yet to-day, on the polygonal wall which sustains the terrace of the great temple, one can read by hundreds those acts of enfranchisement which recall that the sanctuary of Apollo was, in the second century, one of the great centres of emancipation for slaves." We have not space to dwell upon M. Diehl's survey of the history and present organization of the twenty monasteries of Mt. Athos, with their great army of monks, nor upon the record of his experiences at Constantinople. His chapters on Famagusta and Rhodes are largely devoted to showing the predominant influence of France during the Middle Ages in the Levant, and especially to picturing the marvellous prosperity of Cyprus when, under the house of Lusignan, it became the great market for the merchants of Asia and Europe. Amid all the profoundly interesting associations of Jerusalem, however, the things which impress him most are the evidences of the eclipse of France and rise of Russia in Syria. He closes his highly instructive book with a sigh of regret at the "slow but real waning of our influence, the scarcely perceived but incontestable diminution of our prestige."

Educational Aims and Methods. By Sir Joshua Fitch. Macmillan Co.

It is always a pleasure to review a work by Sir Joshua Fitch. It would be hard to name a single book in English which can be more unreservedly recommended to the young teacher than Fitch's 'Lectures on Teaching.' The present volume is more miscellaneous, but is characterized by the same thorough knowledge, deep interest in the subject, breadth of judgment, and clearness of style as the earlier admirable book. It consists of fifteen lectures delivered at important educational centres in England and America. Among the titles are the following: "Methods of Instruction Illustrated in the Bible"; "Socrates and his Methods of Teaching"; "Charles Darwin and the Evolution of Character"; "Hand-work and Head-work"; "Endowments and their Influence on Education"; "Edward Thring"; "University Extension"; "The Sunday School of the Future."

The first lecture is of special interest. The varied contents of the many documents which make up the Bible are analyzed, and the different ways in which they appeal to the human mind are set forth. The consideration of the Psalms and Isaiah suggests the importance of poetry as a factor in education, and the remark is made that the caution, wise for most teaching, not to soar above the pupil's comprehension, does not exactly apply to the use of poetry. Here it may be wise and right to allow a pupil to learn some things which he only dimly comprehends. The parallelism, which is so characteristic a feature of Hebrew poetry, is likened to the important pedagogic device of restating a thought with changed words. Dr. Fitch remarks that catechisms or memory lessons are rather a substitute for teaching than an aid to it, and comments on the fact that, in the New Testament, the only formulary used is the Lord's Prayer, and this is expressly given as a suggestion only. "Why are proverbs so little effective?" asks Dr. Fitch. "Because," he thinks, "they contain more wit than wisdom," stating only half the truth and being therefore half false. "A better form of teaching than the proverb is the parable, and why is this so good? Because the pupil, beginning to reflect, becomes his own teacher." How important the phrase, descriptive of Christ's teaching, "Without a parable he did not speak to them." The teacher will value the Scripture references in Dr. Fitch's essay. The choicest passages of the Bible are thus indicated. The passages might well be used in the daily Bible-reading in schools, and the teacher will be helped in his own brief comment by Dr. Fitch's thoughtful study.

We have left ourselves little room for comment on the other lectures. Several of them are biographical studies. Arnold and Thring, says Sir Joshua Fitch, are the two most important names in the history of secondary education in England during the last seventy-five years.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Bacon, Lee. Our Houseboat on the Nile. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.75.
Beavan, A. H. Imperial London. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $4.
Beecher, May H. (1)-No Trespassing; (2) Jacqueminot. F. Tennyson Neely Co.
Blair, Ed. Kansas Zephyrs. Madison (Wis.): The American Thresherman. $1.
Blanchard, Amy E. A Heroine of 1812. Boston: W. A. Wilde Co. $1.50.

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Boutell, R. S. G. Amata. Washington: The Neale Pub. Co. $1.
Bradley, A. G. Owen Glyndwr. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.35.
Brooks, Noah. Lem. Scribners. $1.
Brooks, R. C. A Bibliography of Municipal Problems and City Conditions. New ed. Reform Club.
Burroughs, John; Muir, John; and Grinnell, G. B. Alaska. (Harriman Expedition.) 2 vols. Doubleday, Page & Co.
Channing, Blanche M. Winifred West. Boston: W. A. Wilde Co. $1.
Christianson, Barbara. A Triumphant Defeat. F. Tennyson Neely Co.
Clifford, C. R. Period Decoration. Clifford & Lawton.
Codman, John, 2d. Arnold's Expedition to Quebec. Macmillan.
Coltman, Robert. Beleaguered in Peking. Philadelphia: F. A. Davis Co.
Davis, M. E. M. Jaconetta: Her Lovers. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 85 cents.
Diamond, F. J. The Rational Speller. Macmillan. 24 cents.
Dinsmore, C. A. The Teachings of Dante. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Ditmar, Virginia. Love's Quicksands. F. Tennyson Neely Co.
Dorys, Georges. The Private Life of the Sultan of Turkey. D. Appleton & Co.
Dunn, B. A. From Atlanta to the Sea. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.25.
Emerson, Philip. The New England States. (Tarr and McMurry Geographies.) Macmillan. 30 cents.
Ensign, H. L. Lady Lee, and Other Animal Stories. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $2.
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